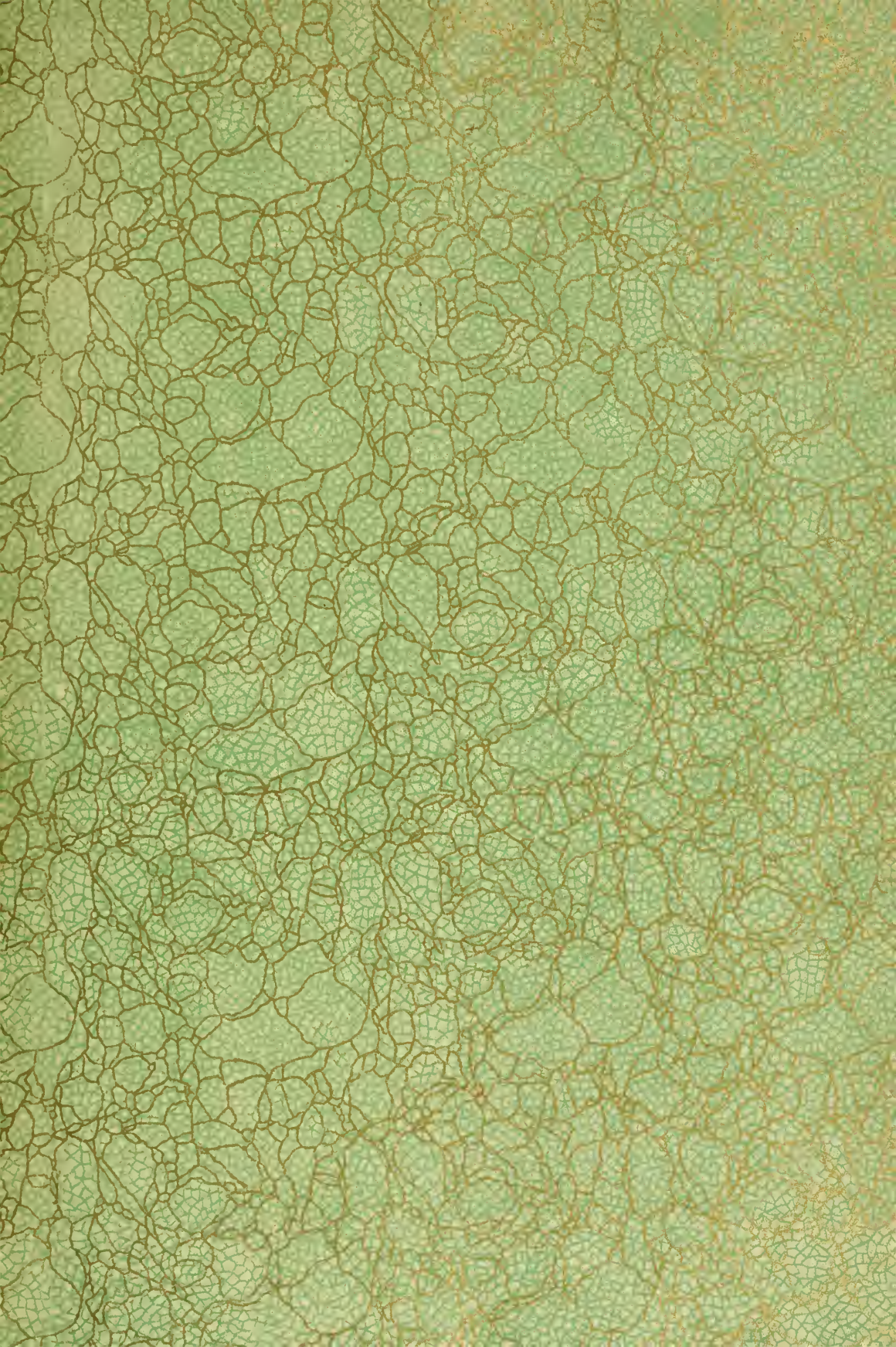


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ALBERTA

1905-1906

HISTORICAL AND
ETHNOGRAPHICAL

REPORT



BY
J. H. M. S. J. H. M. S. J. H. M. S.

Published by the Government of Alberta



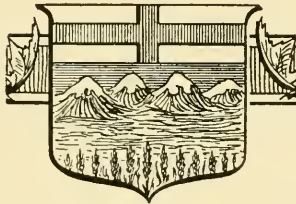
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ALBERTA

PAST AND PRESENT

HISTORICAL AND
BIOGRAPHICAL

By JOHN BLUE, B. A.
Provincial Librarian



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FOREWORD

The design of this work is to give a readable and comprehensive view of the history of Alberta from the earliest times. The author has divided the history of the province into three periods. The first period will cover the early explorations and rule of the Fur Traders. The second period concerns rival fur companies, the Selkirk Purchase, etc.—1811-1821. The third period, which in many ways is the most wonderful of all, deals with the events since 1821—tells the story of the marvelous transformation of the Great Lone Land into the rich and populous Alberta of today.

The story is one of intense and instructive interest to the student of Canadian history. To trace the development of the political institutions of the newest province of the Dominion and compare it with the development of similar institutions in the older provinces of Canada, is an interesting study in comparative politics and highly illustrative of the manner in which responsible government grows in free communities.

The wonderful material development of the province since it was opened for settlement is a story of enthralling interest. Less than fifty years ago the Blackfeet and the Crees roamed the plains and camped on the sites of the principal cities of the province. They hunted the buffalo and the antelope over the unploughed acres that now comprise the farms and homesteads of half a million people. Elk and deer by thousands found shelter in the foot-hills and mountain passes where now scores of mining towns and villages prosper and flourish. Less than fifty years ago there was not a mile of railway between the Red River and the Rocky Mountains. Today there are over six thousand miles of railway in the province of Alberta alone, connected with all the great transcontinental systems of Canada and the United States. Men traveled by dog sleighs, canoes or Red River carts. The only civilized persons who had penetrated the Great Lone Land were the Hudson's Bay traders, the hunters and trappers, the missionaries and the prospectors on their way to the gold diggings of Yale and Caribou.

Today there are nearly three-quarters of a million of a population within the area that now comprises the province. Many of the old Indian trails have been surveyed and have become permanent highways. The people have schools and churches; colleges and universities; municipal

institutions; thousands of miles of telephone communication; banks and great commercial and trading houses. The province, through its vast resources and the energy of its people—drawn from the great races of the world—is rapidly becoming a powerful factor in the commercial and political life of the Dominion of Canada.

The story of this wonderful transformation is worthy of record. An earnest attempt has been made by the author and the publishers to present the great mass of facts with a sense of their due proportion and ultimate value as the true material of history. The author has had the advantage of a long residence in Western Canada, and has had the resources of the Provincial Library at Edmonton, the library of the University of Alberta at his disposal, as well as the excellent collection of Canadiana in the possession of Hon. Dr. A. C. Rutherford, the first Premier of Alberta. Many valuable suggestions have been received from the Officers of the Alberta Historical Society, and from many of the old-timers to whom the rapid development of the last few years is more like a dream than the natural events of history.



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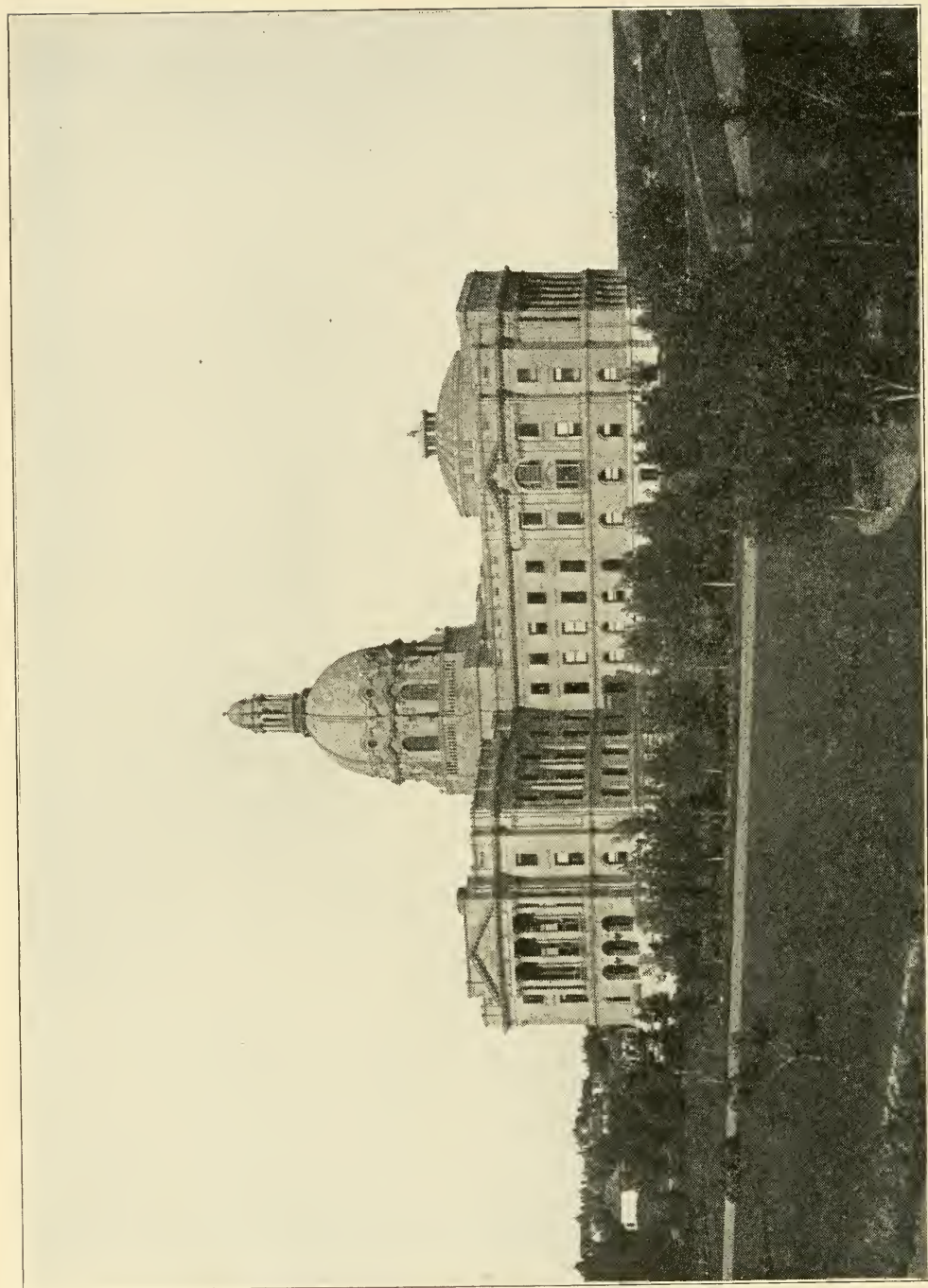
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FIRST PERIOD
1751—1811



PARLIAMENT BUILDING, EDMONTON.

FIRST PERIOD

CHAPTER I.

EARLY EXPLORERS—FUR TRADERS.

Alberta as a name in the annals of Canada was not known before 1882. In that year the North West Territory was divided into four provisional districts for the convenience of settlers and for postal purposes (O. C. May 8th, 1882.) The districts were Alberta, Assiniboia, Athabasca and Saskatchewan. This division continued until 1905 when the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan were organized to comprise the same territory included in the above mentioned districts. The province is named after the second daughter of Queen Victoria.

It is difficult to separate the history of Alberta from the rest of Western Canada. The object of this work is to trace the course of exploration and development in what is now Alberta, making such references to the rest of the North-West as are necessary to give setting to the narrative. Exploration and settlement began from the East, and most of the stirring events of the North West Territory and Rupert's Land were enacted in the Red River valley, the lower Saskatchewan valley and the vast network of lakes and rivers flowing into Hudson's Bay and the Arctic Ocean.

The history of the West begins with Radisson's journey to the Missouri in 1654, where he heard from the Crees and the Sioux of the sea of the north. Agnes Laut points out that he was the first man who realized the possibilities of the West as the home for the millions without homes in all countries. He was the first from Canada or the eastern seaboard to go overland to the sea of the north or Hudson's Bay, and the route he travelled from Lake Superior to the Bay may be called for all time, the line that divides the East from the West.

As far as known, the first white man to penetrate Alberta was Bouchier de Niverville in 1751. He accompanied Captain Legardeur de Saint Pierre, who was sent to the North-West by Governor La Jonquiere. The party left Montreal in 1750 and by way of Grand Portage and the line of forts previously made by La Verendrye and his sons, reached the Red and Assiniboine rivers and established his headquarters at Fort La Reine. From this point St. Pierre sent De Niverville to the Saskatchewan to build a fort beyond any Verendrye had built. De Niverville and his party crossed Lake Winnipeg to the north of the Saskatchewan River, which they ascended to Fort Pasquia (where the Pas now stands), also built by Verendrye. Thence they ascended the Saskatchewan to the foot of the Rocky Mountains. Whether they travelled by the north or south branch

of the Saskatchewan it is safe to say they reached the Province of Alberta. They built a stockaded fort and named it La Jonquiere in honor of the Governor of New France. The honor of this expedition, or at least the opportunity of undertaking it and exploring the Saskatchewan River, rightly belongs to Verendrye and his sons.

Sieur de La Verendrye is the pioneer pathfinder and explorer of the Canadian North-West. His great plans were frustrated by official ignorance, inertia and jealousy, but his achievements even in their incompleteness, remain one of the noblest efforts in the history of exploration. If he had received proper support from the Government of Quebec, he and his intrepid sons undoubtedly would have forced their way across the continent to the Pacific half a century before MacKenzie or Lewis and Clark completed the task, and would have solved the riddle of the North West passage.

In the summer of 1731 La Verendrye and his sons, Jean Baptiste, Pierre and Francois, and his nephew Jemeraye, set out from Montreal for the West. He was given little support except a license to pursue the fur trade in these remote regions. He was not a fur trader but was an explorer and empire builder. In August he reached Grand Portage and sent Jemeraye to build Fort St. Pierre at Rainy Lake. In 1732 he travelled from Fort St. Pierre down Rainy River to Lake of the Woods and built Fort Charles on the western shore of that lake. From this point he sent his eldest son and his nephew down the Winnipeg River in the winter of 1732-33. They reached the mouth of the Winnipeg River and built Fort Maurepas in the spring of 1733. These were the first white men to see Lake Winnipeg. Ascending the Red River they came to its junction with the Assiniboine, where they built a temporary fort on the site of the City of Winnipeg. From here they turned westward up the Assiniboine as far as the site of Portage La Prairie, where they built another fort, La Reine. This fort was the base of Verendrye's expedition to the Mandans of the Missouri in 1738, from which he returned in February 1739. Another expedition to the Mandans was made by his sons in 1742. The object of this expedition was to find a path to the Western Sea. By various means, the Verendrye brothers reached the foot of the Rocky Mountains, but at what point is not definitely known, notwithstanding the speculations of Parkman, Granville Stuart, Judge Prudhomme and others. The fear of their Indian guides to cross the path of the Snake Indians, reluctantly compelled the young explorers to retrace their steps. They arrived at Fort La Reine in July 1743. Some authorities contend that the Verendrye brothers reached Southern Alberta. This, however, is mere speculation.

About 1739 Verendrye notes in his journals: "I have discovered in these days a river that descends into the west." This was the Saskatchewan River, or as he calls it Paskoyac. Evidently he had been told by the Indians. By 1741 he had reached the river and had built Fort Bourbon at its mouth on Cedar Lake, and before the great explorer died in 1749 his

sons Pierre and Francois examined the Saskatchewan to the forks and built a fort. These discoveries so briefly related here, close the career of the Verendyres in the west. A new Governor was in power in Quebec with new favorites and new placemen to reward, and Mons. Legardeur de Saint Pierre and De Niverville reaped where La Verendrye had sown.

St. Pierre has left an interesting memoir of his activities respecting this expedition, found in the report of the Canadian Archives 1886. Referring to the establishment of Fort La Jonquiere, St. Pierre says: "The order which I gave to Chevalier de Niverville to establish a post three hundred leagues above that of Paskoyac, was executed on the 29th of May, 1751. He sent off ten men in two canoes, who ascended the river Paskoya as far as the Rocky Mountains, where they made a good fort which I named Fort La Jonquiere, and a considerable store of provisions in expectation of the arrival of De Niverville, who was to set out a month after them, but was prevented by a serious illness." From St. Pierre's narrative we presume that De Niverville finally reached the fort. St. Pierre set out for La Jonquiere in November, 1751, to pursue his discoveries, which, he says, "was my essential object." He was forced to abandon this mission on account of what he describes as the reason of the Assinipoels, "Going to where the French were newly established at the Rocky Mountains, and found the ¹Yhatchelini there to the number of forty to forty-five cabins. For four or five days they were feasting together. At the end of that time the ²Assinipoels, seeing that they were much more numerous than the others, slaughtered them. This unfortunate event totally deranged my plans and compelled me most unwillingly to abandon them."

It was apparently Saint Pierre's plan to use La Jonquiere as a base for his explorations towards the western sea, for he says that when he dispatched De Niverville, he agreed with the Christenaux and Assinipoels that they should unite with him at the new post "to push my discoveries." Defeated in his purpose to reach La Jonquiere, St. Pierre attempted to gather as much information as possible from the Indians, respecting the far west. He found an old Indian of the Kinongeuilini, who told him that his nation went to trade at an establishment at a great distance, directly towards where the sun sets in the month of June. The traders brought merchandise, said the Indian, almost similar to that of Canada. They were not English and were not so white as the French. The Indian's story was confirmed by the report of De Niverville of what he had learned "at the settlement he had made near the Rocky Mountains." According to St. Pierre's memoir, "De Niverville met a party of Indians who were going to war, met with a nation loaded with beaver who were going by a river which issues from the Rocky Mountains to trade with the French, who had their first establishment on an Island at a small distance from

¹ Probably Wood Crees.

² Assiniboines.

the land, where there is a large storehouse. That when they arrived there they made signals and people came to them to trade for their beavers, in exchange for which they gave them knives, a few lances, but no fire-arms. That they sell them also horses and saddles which shelter them from arrows when they go to war. These Indians positively asserted that the traders were not English. The establishment is by compass west by west which cannot possibly belong to them."

All this is interesting and instructive to show that even in those early days, the Indians of the great plains had established commerce with the Pacific Coast, and to show what glory and honor was lost to the Government of New France, for sending a man like St. Pierre who was unable to win the sympathy and cooperation of the Indians, instead of a man like Verendrye who always succeeded in enlisting the support of the natives in all his enterprises. But in what age have government favorites ever accomplished much for the honor of the nation?

In 1753 St. Pierre left the West in disgust attributing his failure to the evil machinations of the English. It is not definitely known where La Jonquiere was situated. L. R. Masson, who had given much study to the subject, came to the conclusion that the fort stood on the site of the R. N. W. M. P. barracks at Calgary. Captain Brisbois, who founded the Calgary Barracks, told Benjamin Sulte a few years ago, that he had found traces of a fort which he believed to be the old Fort Jonquiere. This view is supported by Dr. Eliot Coues, while James White, geographer of the Dominion, and J. B. Tyrrell of the Geological Survey of Canada are inclined to the view that De Niverville ascended the north Saskatchewan and therefore built his fort some distance below the site of the City of Edmonton. St. Pierre's reference to the English indicates that the rivalry that existed between the French and English in the forests of Canada and New England, had been transferred to the plains of the North-West.

It is not the intention of this work to give an account of the coming of the English traders to Hudson's Bay and the origin of the Hudson's Bay Company in 1670. Suffice it to say that the leaders of New France looked upon the Hudson's Bay Adventurers in the North with the same hostility as they regarded the English invasion of the Ohio valley and the territory beyond the Alleghanies in the South. They quickly perceived with Foch-like sagacity the meaning of two such gigantic flanking movements.

For a number of years the Hudson's Bay Company confined their activities to the territory bordering on the Bay, but the increased rivalry of the two races in North America, the desire to expand the fur trade, and the vision of the North West Passage, roused the Company to new energy and special expeditions were dispatched to realise one or all of those ends. Most important of these for the purpose of this book, was conducted by Anthony Hendry in 1754. Hendry is reputed to be the first Englishman to see the Saskatchewan River and to visit Alberta. He left

York Factory on June 26th, 1750 with a large fleet of canoes and 400 men. He reached the Saskatchewan July 21st, via Hayes River and Moose Lake and paddled up the stream twenty-two miles, where he came to the fort built previously by the French trader De La Corne. He left the Saskatchewan River and crossed country to the Carrot River, which he ascended for over fifty miles. On July 27th he left his canoes and journeyed overland, crossing the South Saskatchewan near Clark's Crossing. Continuing westward, he reached the North Saskatchewan somewhere, says Burpee, between Eagle Hill Creek and The Elbow. From here he turned southwest and probably about the 1st of October entered Alberta. From the evidence of his direction and distance, it is supposed that Hendry crossed the Red Deer River on October 11th, somewhere between the Knee Hills Creek and the Three Hills Creek. Three days after crossing this river, he entered a camp of the Blackfeet comprising over three hundred lodges. After spending three days with the Indians, he continued southwest, crossing, it is supposed, the Knee Hills Creek. Turning northwest he travelled parallel to the Calgary and Edmonton Trail, until he reached some point between the present towns of Olds and Bowden. This was the farthest point west reached by November 21st. He spent the winter in the Blackfoot country, and in the spring went down the Red River to the Saskatchewan and thence to Hudson's Bay.

Hendry's object was to intercept the Indian trade with the French and induce the Blackfeet and the Western Tribes to go down to Hudson's Bay. His representations made little impression on the great Chief of the Blackfeet, who told Hendry that his young men were not used to canoes and could not live without buffalo flesh. His people, he said, did not want for anything. Why, therefore, should they undertake an arduous journey through an unknown country and live on fish or be subject to the terrors of starvation? Altogether he seems to have had the best of the argument with Hendry. Hendry expresses a great admiration for the fine horses and expert horsemanship of the Blackfeet warriors, but when he reached York Factory and told the Hudson's Bay Company officials he had seen Indians on horseback, he was ridiculed as a romancer and storyteller. It was not the last time that officials objected to being told new things by their subordinates.

Very little is heard of the fur trade or exploration in the years immediately prior to, or after the conquest of Canada. After the conquest the French rivals of the Hudson's Bay Company passed away, but their places were taken by others as daring and resourceful. These were the independent traders from Montreal and Quebec, who developed the same faculty of winning the sympathy and cooperation of the Indians, that distinguished the best French explorers and traders. Moreover they enlisted the support of the numerous *Couriers du Bois*, who were left without leadership or occupation at the withdrawal of the French traders.

It is not definitely known who were the first Montreal traders to reach

the Saskatchewan, though the honor seems to lie with Thomas Curry and James Finlay. From the *Journal of Matthew Cocking*, we learn that James Finlay from Montreal resided at an old trading post on the Saskatchewan in 1767. Roderick Mackenzie says that Finlay was the first to follow Mr. Curry, which would indicate that Curry was the first trader of the Saskatchewan after the conquest. These traders are invariably referred to by the Hudson's Bay Company men as "peddlers." They were soon followed by Thomas Frobisher, Joseph Frobisher, Alexander Henry, Benjamin Frobisher, Peter Pond, Peter Pangman and others. They were very successful and enterprising "peddlers," so much so that the Hudson's Bay Company found it necessary to send men to the interior to cover their movements. Matthew Cocking was sent in 1772 and in 1774, Samuel Hearne, the discoverer of the Coppermine River was sent to build Fort Cumberland beside the fort of the Frobishers, built in 1772. From this period until the union of the North West Company and the Hudson's Bay Company in 1821, the Hudson's Bay Company, to quote the words of Alexander Mackenzie, "followed the Canadians to their different establishments, while on the contrary there is not a solitary instance that the Canadians have followed them." As a result of this competition, we generally find two trading posts at the same point, the Hudson's Bay house and the North West house.

From the standpoint of this work our interest in the men of the group mentioned above, centres in Peter Pond. He came to the North-West in 1768. Alexander Henry, the older, who met him on the Saskatchewan in 1775, refers to him as "the trader of celebrity in the North-West." He was the first man to establish a permanent trading post in Alberta. The great fur resources of the Athabasca country attracted the Frobishers in 1775 as far as Isle a la Crosse, where they met the Chipewyan Indians and intercepted them on their way to Fort Churchill. The success of these gentlemen induced the independent traders in the country to pool their stock of goods and to send them into the Athabasca region under Peter Pond in the autumn of 1778. Pond loaded his goods in four canoes at Cumberland House, and following the path of the Frobishers, reached Isle a la Crosse, then the farthest point in that region reached by white man. He followed the course used by the Indians for generations before him, and by many of the most famous explorers of the north who followed him—Mackenzie, Harmon, Back, Franklin. After crossing Methy Portage he launched his canoes in the Clearwater River, the first white man to cast a paddle in North Western America in a river flowing westward. He continued his course to the Athabasca River past where Fort McMurray now stands, and descended the Athabasca to the Lake of the same name,—the first white man to stand on its shores. He built a fort about thirty miles above the mouth of the Athabasca River. The spot is marked on the maps of Alberta by the name "The Old Pond Fort" or "The Old Establishment." This fort may be called the first capital of the Province of Alberta,

and continued so until 1788. Pond planted a garden and was very successful in growing large quantities of vegetables for his various crews. The venture was very successful. In the first year Pond secured as many furs as his canoes could carry, and was obliged to store such as he could not embark until the following season. During his residence in Alberta with the old fort as his headquarters, he explored many parts of this immense region from the Saskatchewan to Lake Athabasca and sent Cuthbert Grant and Laurent Leroux to build trading posts on Great Slave Lake in 1786.

Pond was a great traveller and a minute enquirer. From his extensive knowledge of the country he made a map purporting to show the physical features of the country between Hudson's Bay and the Pacific Ocean. He was a better trader, however, than a geographer. He knew the longitude of the Bay and of the Pacific Coast. He made up his distances from the tales of Indians and voyageurs who measured a league in the time it took to smoke a pipe. These unconscious jokers apparently smoked faster than they walked, and thus got too many leagues from Hudson's Bay to Lake Athabasca. Acting on such information Pond placed the Lake so far west of Hudson's Bay that he left no room for the wide stretch of Rocky Mountains and made the unknown territory to the west much less than it really was.

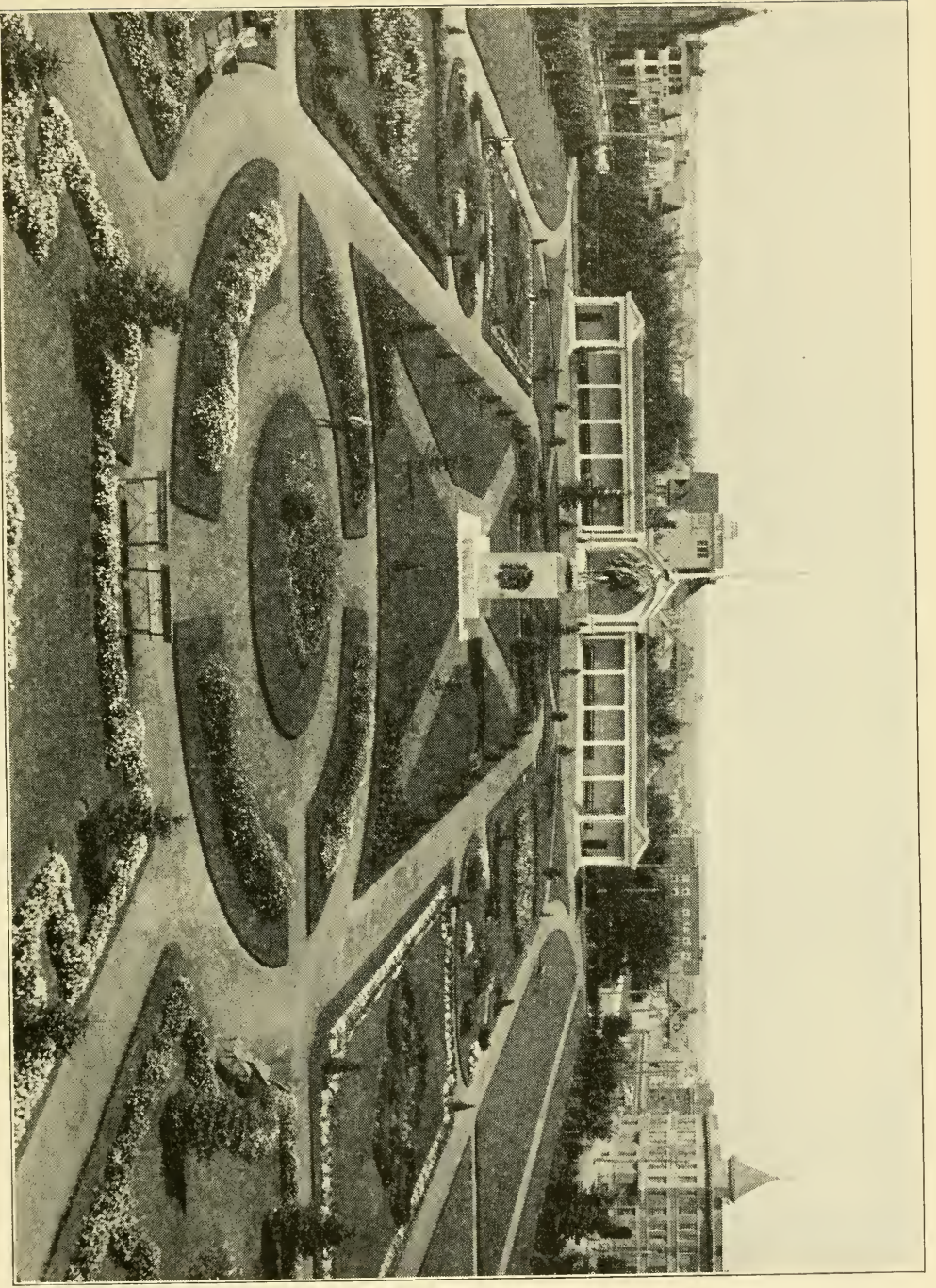
The initial success of Pond on behalf of his associates was interrupted by the terrible outbreak of smallpox in 1781. Mackenzie, in his *History of the Fur Trade*, refers to it in melancholy terms. The natives died by thousands. Reduced in numbers and afraid of coming in contact with the traders, they avoided the trading posts and the fur trade fell to almost nothing. Added to this was a widespread hostility which is said to have been engendered into the minds of some of the natives by the indiscreet use of liquor on the part of some of the traders. As an example the following instance is quoted by Mackenzie: Most of the traders who passed the winter of 1780 on the banks of the Saskatchewan, camped at Eagle Hills. Here they met a large number of Indians, who became so insistent and insolent in their demands for liquor, that one of the traders, Cole, mixed it with laudanum with fatal results to some of the redskins. The Indians took quick and terrible revenge and Mackenzie states that they had formed a resolution to exterminate the traders when the scourge of smallpox overtook them.

Other causes were at work besides liquor and the smallpox, to hinder the development of the fur trade. Unfair competition and the want of any organization policy among the traders, led to serious consequences and even to bloodshed and murder. In 1780 Pond was joined by a trader named Wadin, both representing their associates at Grand Portage. Pond, ambitious, unbalanced and sullen, soon quarrelled with Wadin. Towards the end of the year 1780 Pond and his clerk Le Sieur were dining with Wadin. During the course of the evening a dispute arose, and Wadin was fatally shot, it is believed, by the hand of Pond.

The wise heads at Montreal were not slow to realise the situation in the Indian Territories. Division and internal strife in the face of Indian hostility and the steady encroachment of the Hudson's Bay Company were folly. The feasible solution was the formation of a strong company embracing all private interests engaged in the western fur trade. Hence arose the North West Company. From this date until the union of the Hudson's Bay Company and the North West Company in 1821, the history of Alberta and the North-West is the history of the competition between the North West Company and the Hudson's Bay Company for the control of the fur trade. At times the conflict assumed the proportions of civil war and carried the rival traders to establish posts from the mouth of the Mackenzie River to the mouth of the Columbia River. The story of the conflict will be told in the following chapter. After the union of the two companies in 1821 the struggle changed into a struggle between the Hudson's Bay Company and the people, until the purchase of the whole territory by the Canadian Government in 1870.

In October 1784, the North West Company, through its directors, Benjamin and Joseph Frobisher and Peter Pond, petitioned Governor Haldimand for a monopoly of the fur trade of the North-West for ten years,—pointing out that the property of the company in the country exclusive of houses and stores was over 25,000 pounds. In return they were willing to undertake the exploration of the country at their own expense, between latitudes 55 degrees and 65 degrees: all that country west of Hudson's Bay to the Pacific Ocean; to make surveys and maps for the information of the Government of Quebec and the home government. They urged the necessity of preventing the Russians and Americans on the Pacific Coast and the Americans in the interior, from gaining control over these new regions to the detriment of British interests. Urged by these reasons the company a few months before, sent Edward Umfreville and Vincent St. Germain to discover and explore a new route from Lake Superior to Lake Winnipeg, because Grand Portage was found to be in American territory, by the treaty of 1783. This route was by the Kamanistiquia River, and Fort William, named after William McGillivray the senior partner of the North West Company, became what it has ever since remained, the port of entry of the Great North West. The monopoly was not granted to the Nor'westers but they succeeded in building up such a strong and influential company that they virtually made it impossible for any competitor to engage in the western fur trade except the Hudson's Bay Company.

A few of the merchants of Montreal, who were not included as partners in the North West Company, did not accept defeat without a struggle. A small but vigorous company was formed by Messrs. Alexander Norman Macleod, John Gregory, Alexander Mackenzie, John Finlay and Peter Pangman. The new company had first included our old friend Peter Pond, who was dissatisfied with the organization of the North West Company,



CENTRAL PARK, CALGARY

but he soon rejoined his old associates. The new company followed the tactics of the Hudson's Bay Company and as far as possible built forts wherever it found those of the Nor'westers or Hudson's Bay Company.

It is in the activities of the new company that the next great explorer identified with Alberta, appears. This is Alexander Mackenzie. Born in Stornoway in 1763 he came to Canada in 1779. He joined the firm of Macleod and Gregory of Montreal also engaged in the western fur trade. After spending five years with the firm, in Montreal, young Mackenzie was sent to Detroit. Becoming a partner of the new company he left Detroit in 1785 to take charge of the Churchill district, taking with him his cousin Roderick Mackenzie, whose reminiscences throw considerable light upon the events in this region at that time. In the Athabasca district to the west, Peter Pond looked after the new company's interests while a Mr. Ross represented the Nor'westers. Pond, true to his sullen and variable nature, quarrelled with Ross and finally in a scuffle between the parties, Ross was fatally shot. This tragedy led to the amalgamation of the two companies in 1787, the partners of the new company being absorbed in the North West Company. Mackenzie was now given charge of the Athabasca district. Following the usual route by the Methy Portage, the Clearwater River, he reached Pond's Old Establishment in the autumn of 1788. As we have seen, this was the point where the outfits for the several posts in the Athabasca district were made up, and from which they were dispatched from Lake Athabasca, Peace River and Great Slave Lake since Pond entered the country ten years before. Here Mackenzie settled for the winter and matured his plans for his dash down the great river that bears his name. He sent his cousin Roderick down the river to erect a new post on the shores of Lake Athabasca. This fort was called Fort Chipewyan and was built a short distance east of the mouth of the Athabasca River. In after years the Fort was moved to the north side of the lake, its present situation. For many years in the history of Alberta, old Fort Chipewyan may be regarded as the capital and the most important centre of the Province. Roderick Mackenzie who had a Scotchman's taste for learning and culture established here the first library, and many of the books are still in existence at the post, so that for a number of years Chipewyan was known as "The Athens of the North."

Let us now turn to the great exploits of Mackenzie. Though the scenes of his achievements lie outside the boundaries of the Province, yet they comprise the vast hinterland of Alberta, the development of which, since Mackenzie's triumph to the present and for the future, is virtually identified with the growth and expansion of this Province. Edmonton, the capital, is the base of supply for the great northland which comprises nearly one quarter of the area of the Dominion of Canada. In his preface to his *History of the Fur Trade*, Mackenzie tells us he was of an inquisitive mind and enterprising spirit; that he possessed a constitution and frame of body equal to the most arduous undertakings. From the time he

entered the North-West he says he contemplated the practicability of penetrating across the continent of America and was confident of his ability to accomplish his great task. Rarely has a man's estimate of himself been so justified by success as Mackenzie's estimate of his capabilities. His voyages down the river that bears his name solved the question of the North-West Passage and his trip overland to the Pacific won the Province of British Columbia to the British Empire.

Though it was usual for the wintering partners of the North West Company to go down to Fort William in the spring with the fur brigades to meet the Montreal partners, Mackenzie resolved after establishing his post at Chipewyan during the winter of 1788-89, to remain in the Interior and pursue his explorations. Accordingly he sent out Roderick, his cousin, with the fur that Spring. He prepared for his voyage to the Arctic Ocean. Knowing the difficulties of such an undertaking Mackenzie organized a crew of picked men. For a guide he secured an Indian called English Chief who had often made the journey from Lake Athabasca to Hudson's Bay to trade with the English, and thus gained his name. With his two wives and other Indians who acted as hunters and interpreters, the Chief occupied one canoe. Mackenzie and four French Canadians, two of them accompanied by their wives, led the way in his own canoe. These four Canadians deserve to have their names recorded. They were Francois Barribeau, Charles Ducette, Joseph Landry and Pierre De Lorme. He also had a young German named John Steinbruck. Laurent Leroux, who had established a post at the Great Slave Lake in 1786, accompanied the expedition to his own post situated on the northern arm of Slave Lake and now known as Fort Providence.

Mackenzie has left a detailed account of his trip. He modestly begins his Journal thus:—"Journal of a Voyage, etc., June, 1789, Wednesday, 3. We embarked at nine in the morning, at Fort Chipewyan-----in a canoe made of birch bark." Passing the mouth of the Peace River he entered the Slave River and reached Great Slave Lake on June 9th. In his Journal he notices Portage des Noyes where five men were drowned in 1786 on their way to Slave Lake under Cuthbert Grant and Laurent Leroux. After spending some time at Leroux' post where he met Yellow Knife Indians, he set out again. He found some difficulty in locating the outlet of the lake by the great river, but finally succeeded on July 1st. In five days he reached the mouth of the Great Bear River. On the way down he met the Slave and Dogrib Indians who told weird tales of horned monsters and evil spirits to be encountered before the sea was reached. These tales greatly alarmed the Indians of his party and Mackenzie had difficulty in urging them on, though their fears increased as they approached the land of the Eskimaux. As they continued down the river they met new tribes, the Hare Indians and the Quarrellers. From the latter he learned that he was near the sea. On Sunday, July 11th, Mackenzie sat up all night to observe the sun. At half past twelve he called one

of his men to view a spectacle he had never seen. On seeing the sun the man called the rest of the crews, thinking it was time to embark, but he was informed by Mackenzie that the sun had not sunk behind the horizon, and that they were now in the land of the Midnight Sun. On the evening of the 12th, Mackenzie and English Chief went to the top of an Island, from which they discovered that solid ice extended from the southwest to the eastward. No sooner had the party retired to rest that night, than they were compelled to arise and remove the baggage on account of the rising water. The following morning they caught a fish in their nets, which English Chief recognized as being of a kind that abounds in Hudson's Bay. On the 14th they saw whales and tried to kill one. On the 16th Mackenzie began his return and on August 22nd paddled into Great Slave Lake. Here he met Leroux. After spending a few days with Leroux he proceeded up the Slave River, reaching Lake Athabasca and Fort Chipewyan, his starting place, on September 12th. He ends his Journal as modestly as he began: "Thus we concluded this voyage, which had occupied the considerable space of 102 days."

Mackenzie spent the winter of 1789-90 at Fort Chipewyan and went out in the spring with the fur brigades to Grand Portage. The North West Company partners showed little enthusiasm over his great discovery. "My expedition was hardly spoken of," he says in one of his letters to Roderick Mackenzie, written from Grand Portage. But the indifference of his fellow partners did not dampen his enthusiasm for further exploration. On his way down from the Athabasca country, he met Philip Turner, a surveyor, at Cumberland House. He learned that Turner was being sent by the Hudson's Bay Company on an expedition of discovery and was to winter in the Athabasca country. He knew the Hudson's Bay Company, which had done no exploration since Hearn's discovery of the Copper Mine twenty years before, was being urged by the British Government to pursue exploration and to ascertain all the knowledge possible even to the Pacific Ocean. At Grand Portage he learned of the encroachment of the Americans on the west of the Great Lakes and of the Russians on the Pacific Coast from Alaska. On his return to Chipewyan in the fall of 1790, he adopted vigorous measures to pursue the fur trade and increase the output. Old Simon McTavish had growled about the output, and no doubt thought Mackenzie was spending too much of the Company's time in visionary explorations. At the same time Mackenzie instructed his traders to "make all possible enquiry regarding the country of the Beaver Indians and more particularly regarding the great river which is reported to run parallel with and falls into the sea to the westward of the river in which I voyaged, and commit such to paper." (Letter to Roderick Mackenzie, March 2nd, 1791).

Meanwhile he kept his eye on Philip Turner, who was then completing his survey of Lake Athabasca and the Slave River. On his way down to Grand Portage in 1791 he met Turner and Ross at Lake La Loche and

decided that the party was ill prepared to undertake difficult exploration work. During his discovery of the Mackenzie River, the great explorer found the want of astronomical training and instruments. So in the winter of 1791-92 we find him in the Old Country learning astronomy. In August 1792 he was back at Grand Portage for the annual meeting of the Nor'Westers. At this meeting the partnership was continued for a further period of seven years, and Mackenzie was sent back to the Athabasca district. In October we find him at Fort Chipewyan again, determined on his second great exploration.

Before we follow Mackenzie to the Pacific, let us advert to the conditions in the Athabasca Region since Pond entered in 1778. As we have noticed, Pond's Fort was for a time the centre of commercial enterprise in Alberta and the north, until the establishment of Fort Chipewyan in 1788. During the interval of ten years much local exploration had been done by the North West Company and the Hudson's Bay Company. Cuthbert Grant and Laurent Leroux had established a post on the north arm of Great Slave Lake to trade with the Red Knives and the Slave Indians. This was a difficult post from which to get out the fur in time to proceed with the Athabasca Brigade to Grand Portage. It was afterwards removed to the south side of the Lake near the site of the present Fort Resolution. In 1788 Mackenzie sent Boyer up the Peace River to build a fort at the mouth of the Boyer River, a little below the site of the present Fort Vermilion. Vandrieul accompanied Boyer and surveyed the river up to this point. Another fort further up the river was in charge of John Finlay, who subsequently explored the Finlay River. This was the most westerly point reached by the traders of the east at the time Mackenzie set out for the Pacific Ocean.

Up to the time of the opening of Pond's Fort and Fort Chipewyan, the Indians usually went down to Hudson's Bay to trade, but by the establishment of posts in the Athabasca and Peace River regions, with Fort Chipewyan as a centre, the trade of the country passed into the hands of the Nor'Westers. Attempts were made on different occasions to find a better canoe route into the Athabasca country so as to avoid the back-breaking portage La Loche, which was 11½ miles long. Roderick Mackenzie made two exploratory trips for this purpose, but without success. This portage long remained a terror to the traders of the Athabasca country. Boats were required to be dragged back and forth across 11 miles of sand and muskeg, over a hill 800 feet high. Subsequently two sets of boats were kept, one on each side of the portage, which, however, did not obviate the transport of goods and furs by whatever means possible, mostly the backs of the canoe men and voyageurs.

Of his expedition to the Pacific Ocean, Mackenzie has left us a very detailed account, which indicates how much greater the task was than his Arctic Expedition. With the prudence of the practical man he made careful preparations and picked a faithful crew. Two of his men were our

old friends Joseph Landry and Charles Ducette. The others were Baptiste Bison, Francis Courtois, Jacques Beauchamp, Francis Bealieu with two Indians, one of whom Mackenzie says, turned out so lazy that he was ever afterwards known as "The Crab." On October 10th he left Fort Chipewyan and proceeded up the Peace River to the forks of the Peace with the Smoky, a few miles above where the town of Peace River now stands. His lieutenant was Alexander McKay, one of the shrewdest and most resourceful men in the service of the North West Company. Men had been sent ahead to build a Fort at this point and here Mackenzie wintered and traded with the Indians. On December 29th the camp was struck by a Chinook wind, which melted all the snow. Here the explorer spent a profitable winter trading with the Indians. Like Verendrye, he was one of those masterful men that impressed the Indians, knowing as if by instinct when to humour them and when to be firm. His Journal describing life at the Post with the Indians in 1792-93 is very instructive and must be read to be appreciated. One day the Indians brought him a young man who had nearly lost his thumb by the bursting of a gun. The wound was badly infected and threatened the life of the young man. Mackenzie risked his surgical reputation and by a poultice of bark, stripped from the roots of the spruce fir and by a salve made of Canadian Balsam, wax and tallow dropped from a burning candle into water, perfectly healed the wound in a few weeks.

On May 8th he dispatched six canoes loaded with furs to Fort Chipewyan and the next day started up the Peace River on his untracked journey to the Pacific Ocean. As he ascended he met several Indians but none of them knew anything of the country beyond the mountains. He made careful notice of the country on each side, and the varieties of the animals. In one place he says the country was so crowded with animals as to have the appearance of a stall yard. These statements of the wealth of animal life in the Peace River Valley, are confirmed by Harmon fifteen years later. The Rocky Mountains appeared on the 17th. When he arrived at Hudson's Hope on the 21st, his men were dismayed and wanted to turn back but the leader was of that heroic mould that what he dared to dream, he dared to do, so instead of turning back they set to work to cut a road over the mountains to where the river was smooth again. By the 26th they completed the portage and embarked. He reached the forks of the Finlay and the Parsnip on the 31st and, acting on the advice of the old Indian, he turned up the Parsnip and reached Macleod Lake on June 12th, which he regarded as the source of the Peace River or the Unjigah River. This latter name has been used to describe the Peace as late as 1888 in a railway charter. He was now close to the height of land between the Arctic and the Pacific Ocean and he must have felt proud that he had travelled this waterway through its entire course to the Arctic Ocean.

We shall not trace his course further, beyond the observation that he

continued meeting greater difficulties than any yet encountered and finally reached the Pacific Ocean at the mouth of the Bellacoola River July 20th, 1793, the first white man to cross the continent of British North America. Before he returned he left a brief memorial of his exploit painted on the rocks. He used a mixture of vermilion and grease and wrote these words: "Alexander Mackenzie from Canada by land 22nd July, 1793." In less than one month he was back at his own fort at the mouth of the Smoky River, arriving there at 4 p. m., August 20th, 1793.

The discoveries of Mackenzie marked a turning point in the history of the North-West, in fact of Canada. For the first time man began to know its extent and configuration. All the great rivers except the Fraser and the Columbia had been explored. The Dominion of Canada, as we know it today, was circumscribed and preempted for the British Empire. From this period Canadians settled down to a minute exploration of the country and to a systematic development of its vast resources. David Thompson, the next great man identified with the early history of the North-West, began the work that in our generation has been so splendidly continued by men of the Geological Survey of Canada—Macoun, Tyrell, Selwyn, Dawson, Dowling and McConnell.

We must now divert our attention from the Peace and Athabasca to the Saskatchewan. So far we have traced no one up the North Saskatchewan beyond the expeditions of Alexander Henry, Thomas Curry and John Finlay. None of these ever reached Alberta, but by the end of the century the North Saskatchewan was thoroughly explored and numerous forts established from Fort Vermilion near the inter-provincial boundary between Alberta and Saskatchewan, to Rocky Mountain House. Most of our information of this period is derived from the Journals of David Thompson and Alexander Henry, the Younger. In his book "Search for the Western Sea," Lawrence J. Burpee says: "Three names must ever stand first in the annals of exploration of Western Canada,—La Verendrye, Mackenzie and Thompson." They are indeed a distinguished trio, of whom any nation might be proud and whose travels and achievements are as great as those of the mythical characters of Homer. Of the three, possibly Thompson is the least known to those who study Canadian history in our schools and colleges. The students and people of Canada are therefore much indebted to Mr. J. B. Tyrell for his excellent summary of Thompson's Journals, published by the Champlain Society. The original Journals are preserved in the Crown Lands Department at Toronto, and comprise forty-five volumes of foolscap in Thompson's own handwriting. They cover his life from 1784 to 1850. It is pathetic to find that this great man was reduced to penury and even want in his old age. Moreover, it is reprehensible that such is the way a nation often rewards its great benefactors.

David Thompson was born in London, April 30th, 1770, of Welsh parentage. He was educated at the Grey Coat School, Westminster, within

five minutes' walk of Westminster Abbey, where many men of inferior ability and achievements are immortalised. He spent several years at this school, 1777-1784, and on May 20th of the latter year, the Governors of the school bound young Thompson over to the Hudson's Bay Company and paid the Gentlemen Adventurers five pounds for taking off their hands this fourteen year old lad, who was to become the greatest geographer of North America. In due time Thompson landed at Fort Churchill. Next year he tramped fifty miles along the shores of the Hudson's Bay to York Factory, the first of many journeys he was destined to make. On July 21st, 1786, he left York Factory fitted out with a trunk, handkerchiefs, shoes, shirts, a gun, powder, tin pot or cup, in company with forty-six other "Englishmen", in charge of Robert Longmore, to establish posts on the Saskatchewan River. At this time the most westerly Hudson's Bay post on this river was Hudson's House on the north branch. This post was likely built by John Tomson and Philip Turner in 1776. It was situated on Section 32, Township 46, R. 3, W. 3rd Meridian, a short distance below the site of Fort Carlton. The party ascended the Saskatchewan to a point forty-two miles above Battleford and built Manchester House. Forty miles farther up the river was the North-West post under Edward Umfreville which was at that time the most westerly point reached on the North Saskatchewan by a white man and continued so until Peter Pangman, for the North West Company, ascended to Rocky Mountain House three years later.

We have noticed that Anthony Hendry thirty years before visited the Blackfeet in Southern Alberta to induce them to go down to the Bay. Nothing resulted from Hendry's visit as we have seen. The next step therefore, was to induce the Blackfeet tribes to come to the inland posts on the North Saskatchewan. Accordingly Thompson, though but a lad of seventeen years, was sent with six others to the Blackfeet country. He left Manchester House in the autumn of 1786 and traveled southwest, reaching the Bow River in the vicinity of Calgary, and spent the winter with the Peigans, lodging a great part of the time in the tent of Chief Saukamappee. Returning to Manchester House in the spring of 1787 he spent the summer on the Saskatchewan and wintered 1787-88 at Cumberland House. Here he began his survey work, which, Tyrell says, was to make him the greatest practical land geographer that the world has produced. The following winter (1789-90) he was again at Cumberland House in company with Philip Turner, the official surveyor of the Hudson's Bay Company. No doubt he received many lessons from Turner, but the pupil far outstripped the master.

For the next seven years Thompson was engaged in the country between Cumberland House and York Factory, though it seems to have been the policy of the directors in London that Thompson should be sent inland to the Athabasca country to pursue his explorations and keep watch over the Nor'Westers. The officials of the Bay, however, were tardy in carry-

ing out the policy of the London office, so that it was not until 1796 that Thompson was able to reach Lake Athabasca by Reindeer and Wollaston Lakes and down Black River. This was his last expedition for the Hudson's Bay Company. On May 23rd, 1797, he left the Company and joined the Nor'Westers. He now began his real work of exploration and survey. His new masters seem to have given him the greatest liberty. No doubt the brilliant exploits of Alexander Mackenzie and the consequent prestige to the North West Company caused a change in the policy of the Company since the days when old Simon McTavish growled about Mackenzie's visions and explorations. The work assigned to him at the big meeting at Grand Portage in the summer of 1797 included:

- (a) Determination of the position of the 49th Parallel of north latitude.
- (b) A visit to the Mandan villages on the Missouri River.
- (c) Search for fossils of large animals.
- (d) Determination of the position of the trading posts of the North West Company.

We have not the space to devote to all these undertakings and shall confine the narrative to Thompson's travels in Alberta.

After making the trip to the Mandan villages and returning to Grand Portage by the south shore of Lake Superior, he was dispatched on July 4th, 1798, to Lac La Biche and built a house on the east end of the lake, latitude 54 degrees, 46 minutes, 32 seconds north. Here he spent the winter. Towards the end of March, 1799, he proceeded overland to Fort Augustus, then situated a mile and a half above the mouth of the Sturgeon River, within the present settlement of Fort Saskatchewan, and built in 1794, by Angus Shaw of the North West Company, to attract the trade of the Blackfeet. Towards the end of this year Peter Fidler of the Hudson's Bay Company reached Lac La Biche and built Greenwich House beside the one built by Thompson.

From Fort Augustus, Thompson set out on April 19th for the Pembina River and reached it where the fifth meridian crosses it between townships 60 and 61, on the 21st. He descended the Pembina by canoe built by one of his men, Durand, who had preceded him to the Pembina, and reached the Athabasca on the 25th. He explored Lesser Slave Lake and continued down the Athabasca to the mouth of the Clearwater where Fort McMurray now stands. He left this point May 10th and surveyed the Clearwater River, the Methy Portage and the entire route to Isle a la Crosse. On June 10th he married Charlotte Small, the half-breed daughter of Patrick Small, in charge of the North West Company post at Isle a la Crosse. She was fourteen and he was twenty-nine years old. He then set out for Grand Portage where he received a new stock of drawing paper for his maps. With John Macdonald of Garth, he returned to Fort George on the North Saskatchewan, a post of the North West Company,

situated in Section 19, Township 56, Range 5, W. 4th, built by Angus Shaw in 1792 and close to Buckingham House, the post of the Hudson's Bay Company, built later. These were the first posts built in the province of Alberta on the North Saskatchewan River.

CHAPTER II.

EXPLORERS AND FUR TRADERS (Cont'd.).

For the next few years Thompson's work was confined to the Province of Alberta, but before we follow him let us consider what had been done by those who preceded him. As we have seen, Peter Pangman of the North West Company ascended the North Saskatchewan as far as the site of Rocky Mountain House in 1789. Angus Shaw built Fort George in 1792 and Fort Augustus in 1794. In 1795 George Sutherland of the Hudson's Bay Company built Fort Edmonton, probably naming it after Edmonton, near London, England, the birthplace of John Prudens, his clerk. Buckingham House also had been built in the neighborhood of Fort George but the date is uncertain, probably 1793. In 1798 the North West Company sent James Hughes to build a fort close to Fort Edmonton, which was called New Fort Augustus, on the site of the present city of Edmonton. It was in charge of Hughes and Macdonald of Garth. Macdonald tells us in his autobiographical notes that there was another fort at Edmonton, "a new concern which assumed a powerful shape in the name of the XY Co., at the head of which was the late John Ogilvie in Montreal and at this establishment a Mr. King, an old south trader in his prime and pride as the first among bullies." The new concern, as Macdonald calls it, was composed of the dissatisfied partners of the North West Company, who had retired and were organized into a company in 1795 by the firm of Messrs. Forsyth, Richardson and Company of Montreal. The name by which the company was designated was given to it on account of the symbols XY used to mark the bales of fur and to distinguish them from those of the North West Company, usually marked NW. It was not really the legal name of the company. The XY Company during its existence included some of the most enterprising men that ever engaged in the fur trade, including Sir Alexander Mackenzie who, as we have seen, was never on cordial relations with old Simon McTavish and we may take John Macdonald's estimate of them as "A new concern which assumed powerful shape" as a measure of the race they gave the old North West Company. The XY Company also had a post at Fort George. The most westerly post on the North Saskatchewan was Rocky Mountain House built about a mile above the confluence of the Clearwater and the Saskatchewan in 1799 by Macdonald of Garth.

Up to this time there had been but one fort built on the South Saskatchewan, if we except Fort La Jonquiere of De Niverville in 1751. This

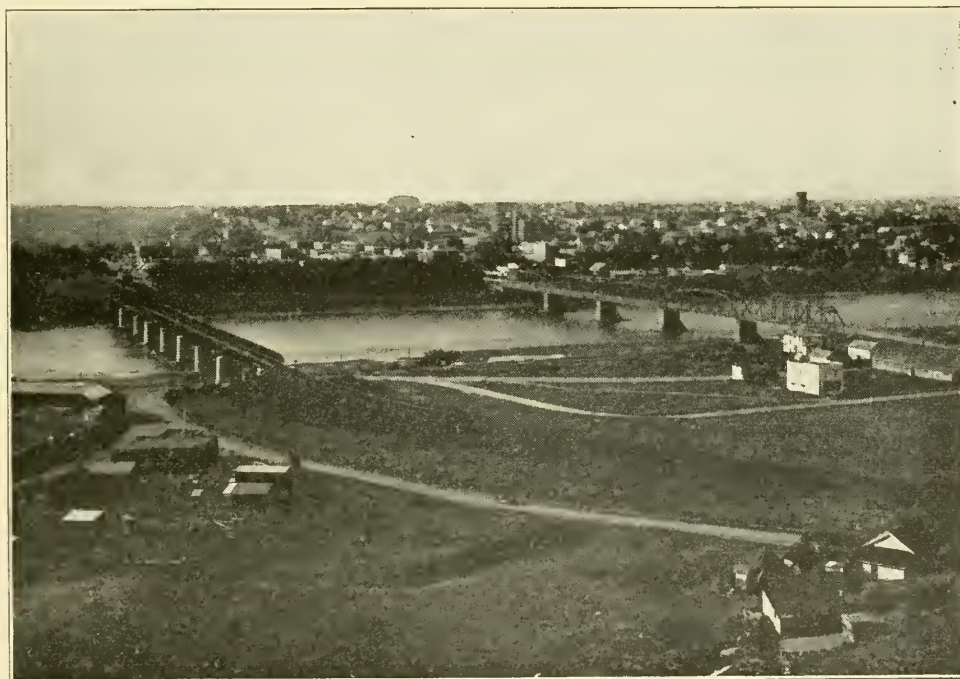
was South Branch House near Gardepui's Crossing. It is not known exactly when it was established but Thompson visited it October 18th, 1793, and Peter Fidler says that the Hudson's Bay Company post was plundered June 24th, 1794, though the North West Company house close by escaped. After this the fort was abandoned until 1804 when a new post was established six miles farther up the river.

We are now in a position to follow Thompson in his various expeditions throughout the province. We left him at Fort George. In the spring of 1800 he set out on horseback to Fort Augustus and thence to Rocky Mountain House, taking the well known Blackfoot trail from Fort Augustus. On May 5th he embarked at Rocky Mountain House and made a survey of the Saskatchewan River to The Elbow. On his way down he found the Hudson's Bay Company men encamped at Buck Lake Creek, eight miles below Goose Encampment. He passed White Mud House at the mouth of Wabamun Creek in charge of a clerk named Hughes of the North West Company. On May 7th he reached Fort Augustus and three days later passed Fort George, his starting place. Fort George was by this time in a ruinous condition and was being abandoned for a fort a few miles up the river called Island Fort built by De Coigne in 1801, situated in section 19, township 56, range 5, west of the 4th meridian. On May 18th he left Fort George and mentions the ruins of several old posts observed by him, viz., Umfreville's old house, in section 4, township 53, range 25 west 3rd meridian on May 20th. He mentions another Island House near the old site of Manchester House where he spent the winter of 1793—and Turtle River House in section 4, township 36, range 18 west 3rd meridian. Before he reached The Elbow he must have noticed the site of Cole's old post where Cole gave the laudanum to the Indians in 1780. He went on to Grand Portage and in the autumn returned to Rocky Mountain House, then in charge of Duncan McGillivray.

Rocky Mountain House and Alexander Mackenzie's old fort on the Peace River were now to be Thompson's headquarters during the years he was to spend in Alberta and before he began his transmontane explorations. On October 5th Thompson traveled up the Clearwater and over to the Red Deer River and visited a camp of the Peigans at the mouth of William Creek. From there he travelled twenty-two miles west to conduct a band of Kootenay Indians to Rocky Mountain House. When the Indians were ready to return he sent two of his men, Le Blanc and Le Gassi, with them to spend the winter in their home across the mountains. These men were, as far as we know, the first white men to cross from the Saskatchewan to the Columbia River. Accompanied by Duncan McGillivray, a North West Company partner, Thompson went south again until he reached the Bow River in the vicinity of Calgary. According to Tyrell's summary he surveyed the northeast side of the river down to a short distance below the bend, where he crossed it and went on to the Highwood River which he reached two miles above its mouth. From here



MAIN STREET, MEDICINE HAT



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF MEDICINE HAT

he turned a little west of south and reached a camp of the Peigans in latitude 50 degrees, 35 minutes, 30 seconds north, travelling on Tongue Flag Creek. He was now farther south in Alberta than any white man had yet reached, except Peter Fidler of the Hudson's Bay Company, who was at the foot of Chief Mountain in 1792. "After stopping here for a short time," says Tyrell, "in order to establish friendly relations with these Indians, he turned northward and again reached the Bow River at a point which he places in latitude 51 degrees, 13 minutes, 51 seconds north, longitude 114 degrees, 58 minutes, 22 seconds west, a short distance from the mouth of the Ghost River. From here he followed the Bow River upwards on its south bank for three miles and then fording the stream, followed the trail on its north bank to the steep cliffs of the mountains where the town of Exshaw is now located." Here McGillivray killed a mountain sheep, possibly the first specimen to reach the hands of systematic naturalists. Thence he returned to his old camp on the Bow River and struck northward to Rocky Mountain House. McGillivray explored the country towards the Brazeau River and the country up the Saskatchewan to its headwaters and discovered Howse Pass, which he crossed to the head of the Blaeberry River. Thompson, accompanied by Hughes, explored the Saskatchewan up to Sheep Creek and up the valley of this creek as far as horses could go. An effort was made to go on with the canoe by a way over the mountains, but as the river was in flood the expedition failed.

He returned to the fort June 30th and towards the end of the summer came down to Fort Augustus and back again on horseback. Here he remained until May, 1802, when he went to Fort William and returned to Lesser Slave Lake in October of the same year. Crossing the lake to a North West Company post where Grouard now stands, he proceeded to the Peace River and took up his headquarters at Mackenzie's old fort. He spent the winter at the fort, but was active throughout the summer in exploration, making five trips from the fort and back. In December of that year he was back at the North West Company post on the west end of Lesser Slave Lake and crossed the lake to its outlet to the Little Slave River where the principal North West Company post on the lake was situated, and in charge of John McGillivray, MacIntosh and Jarvis, clerks of the company. Here Thompson wrote a number of letters to the agents of the Company at different posts for porcupine quills, upon which Coues comments: "No doubt to adorn his young wife." This was Thompson's substitute in those simple days for cut glass or a wrist watch. He was back to the Forks on the Peace December 29th. On these trips he noticed the existence of XY posts at Peace River Forks and near the head of Little Slave River.

On February 29th, 1804, he journeyed up the Peace River to the most westerly posts of the North West Company, Rocky Mountain House, which must be distinguished from the one on the Saskatchewan where he win-

tered in 1800-1801, and also from the Rocky Mountain House afterwards built on the Athabaska River within the present Jasper Park. The Peace River Mountain House was in longitude 120 degrees, 38 minutes, a short distance beyond the boundary line between Alberta and British Columbia. He arrived here on March 6th and was back at headquarters March 13th. Two days later he set out with his wife and children for Fort William. He travelled down the river to Horse Shoe House, latitude 57 degrees, 8 minutes north, where he remained from March 20th to April 30th until the river was clear of ice. He then continued by canoe passing the North West Company post on May 2nd, which he calls Fort Vermilion, though it was considerably higher up the river than the present Fort Vermilion of the Hudson's Bay Company. Below it the following posts are mentioned in succession: Old Fort DuTremble; Fort Liard, not far from the site of the present Fort Vermilion; Fort Wenzel, five miles below the Vermilion Falls; and Grand Marais of the North West Company, then deserted. On May 12th he reached Athabaska House at the present site of Fort Chipewyan, in company with a North West Company trader by the name of Wenzel. Crossing Lake Athabaska he ascended the river and on May 17th passed Peter Pond's old fort, reaching the mouth of the Clearwater, where McMurray now stands, on May 19th. From here he proceeded along the route he had already surveyed up Clearwater River across the Methy Portage and thence by Cumberland House to Fort William.

The next few years Thompson spent in the vicinity of Hudson's Bay. Meantime old Simon McTavish died in 1804 and the XY Company amalgamated with the North West Company. At the big meeting at Fort William in 1806, the North West Company, renewed and strengthened by the union, resolved on a vigorous policy of expansion and to follow up the work of Alexander Mackenzie. Accordingly Thompson, the most suitable man in the service, was delegated to open up relations with the Indians west of the mountains. He arrived at Rocky Mountain House on the Saskatchewan, October 29th, 1806, then in charge of Jules Quesnell. Here he spent the winter 1806-1807 maturing plans for his transmontane expedition. With wife and family he started on May 10th, sending Finan Macdonald ahead with canoes up the river while he travelled on horseback. The party passed Kootenay Plain and reached a spot in the mountains where they were forced to abandon the canoes. They packed their supplies on horses and reached the summit of Howse Pass June 25th. Emerging from the pass the party descended the Blaeberry River to the Columbia, which Thompson called the Kootenay, which he reached on June 30th. The reader will wonder why this pass is called Howse. Joseph Howse was a clerk of the Hudson's Bay Company. He crossed the pass in 1809, two years later than Thompson. The pass was really discovered and traversed first by Duncan McGillivray in 1800 and Jaco Finlay, the Indian half brother of James Finlay, who kept an outpost of

the Rocky Mountain House at Kootenay Plain, and had been over the pass in 1806. Howse, however, was the best publicity agent and so carried off the honour.

Thompson spent the next twelve months on the Columbia trading with the Indians, but returned to the Saskatchewan via Howse Pass, reaching Kootenay Plain June 22nd, 1808. Leaving his family at Boggy Hall, he descended the river by canoe and went east as far as Rainy Lake, returning to Boggy Hall, October 3rd of the same year. This trip of Thompson's is interesting to Albertans because of the observations he makes respecting the forts on the river at this time. Boggy Hall is a new post to the reader. When it was built we do not exactly know, but it was situated on the north bank of the Saskatchewan between townships 46 and 47, range 9, just above Blue Rapids. The next post was Fort Muskako in township 30, range 6 west 5th, called Quagmire Hall by Henry. He does not mention Upper White Mud House, Fort Edmonton, nor Fort Augustus, though we have seen that these posts were in existence on his first trip down the river in 1800. Fort George was in ruins and old Fort Augustus had been pillaged and destroyed by the Blackfeet. He mentions Old Island Fort, twenty miles above Fort George and a new fort within Alberta, viz., Fort Vermilion. This fort was just built on the north side of the river opposite the mouth of the Vermilion River. It was the headquarters of the district. Alexander Henry the younger had just arrived from the Red River to take charge of this fort for the North West Company. There was also a Hudson's Bay Company post at this point in charge of Henry Hallett and Robert Longmore. After spending 40 years with the Company Longmore left the country, having saved £1800 in that time.

We find Thompson in the Kootenay country across the mountains during the winter of 1808-1809 and back again at new Fort Augustus (Edmonton of the present day) in June, 1809, where he met his old friend James Hughes, now partner of the North West Company of whom Macdonald of Garth says "he was as brave a fellow as ever treaded the earth." He sent his brigade eastward while he returned to the Columbia, meeting Joseph Howse at Kootenay Plain on his way back from the pass that falsely bears his name. We find him back on the Saskatchewan again in 1810 on his way to Rainy Lake accompanied by his family. By this time Upper Fort Augustus (present Edmonton) and Fort Vermilion were abandoned and a new house built at the mouth of the White Earth River, section 1, township 59, range 16, west 4th. Henry was in charge of the post for the North West Company and Hallett for the Hudson's Bay Company. Returning in the autumn with his canoes laden with goods for the Columbia department he attempted to cross by his old route—Howse Pass. His objective was now the mouth of the Columbia River. Bad luck attended his attempts to reach the Columbia by this route. His canoes were turned back at the head of the Saskatchewan by the Peigans who were angry at the North West Company for supplying arms to their enemies, the

Kootenays. Not all the ability of Alexander Henry could outwit the Indians, and Thompson was forced to find another route over the Rocky Mountains.

The route he followed on this expedition became one of the most important in the whole history of trans-continental transportation in western Canada. From the time that Thompson discovered the Athabaska Pass in 1810, it was the main highway across Canada until the completion of the C. P. Railway in 1886. Frustrated in his attempt to cross the Howse Pass, Thompson gathered his men and horses at Boggy Hall and followed the old Indian trail until he reached the Athabaska River near the point where the Canadian National Railway reaches it now. This was in December, 1810. Proceeding up the river he turned southward at the point where the Miette joins the Athabaska to Whirlpool River and crossed the Athabaska Pass descending Wood River to Boat Encampment on the Columbia. After unfortunate delays at this point he finally reached the mouth of the Columbia July 15th, 1811, two months after the establishment of Fort Astoria by the Pacific Fur Company, a new rival in the fur trade of the west, headed by John Jacob Astor.

The reader will be interested to learn that one of the principal members of Astor's party sent out to found Astoria, was Alexander McKay, who accompanied Mackenzie on his overland journey to the Pacific Ocean in 1793. The ship "Tonquin" which brought the party from New York to the mouth of the Columbia was blown up with all on board while on a trading voyage up the west coast of Washington and Vancouver Island. Alexander McKay, chosen to lead this expedition, lost his life in this disaster, and as we may surmise, it was "an irreparable loss to the Company" as Franchere tells us.

The next year Thompson made his last journey through the Province. Returning from the Lower Columbia to Boat Encampment, he crossed the Athabaska Pass May 8th, and on May 11th was at Henry House at the confluence of the Miette with the Athabaska, opposite the present station house at Jasper. From Henry House he proceeded by canoe down the Athabaska to the Little Slave River and turned up to the North West Company post at the foot of the lake. Continuing his journey down the Athabaska he reached the mouth of Lac la Biche River and ascended to the Lake of the same name. Crossing the Portage to Beaver River he descended to Isle a la Crosse. From here he continued by the usual route to Fort William and thence to Terrebonne, near Montreal. Here Thompson took up his residence and set to work to prepare his wonderful map of Western Canada for the North West Company. He never returned to the West again. Towards the end of his life he lost his fortune, and the great explorer was forced to sell his instruments and pawn his coat for food. The reader will observe that Thompson traversed every principal river of the Province. He established the first trans-continental trade

route and made the first topographical survey of western Canada. Like Verendrye he has not received the fame due his name for his great work.

This is an appropriate point at which to review progress made on the Peace, Athabaska and Mackenzie Rivers since we parted with Alexander Mackenzie in 1793. The twenty years that succeeded Mackenzie's expeditions to the Pacific Ocean witnessed a rapid development of the fur trade within Alberta and its adjacent territory. Thompson explored the lower Columbia and the Kootenay and Simon Fraser following in the footsteps of Mackenzie ascended the Peace River and reached the Fraser, descending this turbulent stream to its mouth, 1806-07. There were now three passes through the Rocky Mountains to the Columbia Department,—Howse, Athabaska and Peace. A lucrative trade was springing up. Each year the Peace and Saskatchewan were thronged to and fro with rich cargoes of fur for the East and goods and supplies for the western posts. Within the Province of Alberta and outlying territory many posts were built, principally by the North West Company and the XY Company. The Hudson's Bay Company found great difficulty in establishing trade in these regions and cannot be said to have gained a foothold within the period considered. Though Peter Fidler built Nottingham House in 1802 on the site of the present Fort Chipewyan, beside North West post the Hudson's Bay Company abandoned it in 1806 and retired from the whole Athabasca district until 1815 when the company built Fort Wedderburne near the same post. Posts were built by the rival Canadian companies all the way from Hudson's Hope on the Peace River to Bears Lake Castle on the west end of Great Bear Lake and up the Liard River to Fort Nelson on the Nelson River.

Beginning at the west end of the Peace we shall try to give the posts in order as they existed when Thompson left the country in 1812. The first post was at Hudson's Hope. This post was established by Simon Fraser and John Stewart in 1805 as the base for Fraser's explorations in New Caledonia. It was situated on the north bank of the Peace. Subsequently there was a post on the south bank of the river at the foot of the Canyon. Harmon, who passed here in 1810 on his way to take charge of the North West Company affairs in New Caledonia, called it Rocky Mountain Portage Fort. The next fort was Fort St. John. Thompson does not mention this post in his survey of the river in 1804. Tyrell says this was Rocky Mountain House and it is marked on Tyrell's map. As Rocky Mountain House is a generic name, it is evident the post is the same as Fort St. John.

Entering Alberta the next post was Fort Dunvegan. This was a large, well built fort. Harmon arrived here in 1808 and spent the winter here with a number of North West Company partners, among whom were John McGillivray, J. D. McTavish, John McTavish, Archibald Norman Macleod and 32 others comprising clerks and voyageurs, nine women and several children. Supplies of buffalo, moose, red deer and berries were

easily obtained, which no doubt was the reason it was regarded as such a popular winter resort. The Indians in the neighborhood were Beavers and a few Iroquois and were excellent hunters. The Iroquois Indians were brought from the East by the North West Company to assist in hunting furs. Potatoes, vegetables and barley were grown and yielded large returns. In 1809 barley was cut on July 21st and Harmon says it was the finest he had ever seen in any country.

Proceeding down the river the next fort was near the junction of the Smoky with the Peace. This was where Alexander Mackenzie wintered before his dash to the Pacific and where Thompson spent the winters of 1803 and 1804 and was called by him the Fort of Forks.

Five miles below the Smoky on the north side of the Peace was Macleod's Fort. This was a well constructed fort, for James Mackenzie, a grouchy old partner of the North West Company, stationed at Fort Chipewyan in 1799, complained that the men's quarters at Macleod's Fort were better than those provided for the bourgeois at Fort Chipewyan. There were five bastions, courtyards everywhere and spacious gardens. Below this point, Thompson in his voyage down the Peace in 1804 mentions forts in the following order: Horse Shoe Fort, latitude 57 degrees, 8 minutes; Fort Vermilion, considerably higher up the river than the present post of that name; Fort DuTremble; Fort Liard, not far from the present site of Fort Vermilion; Fort Wenzel, five miles below Vermilion Falls; Grand Marais, and ¹Athabasca House on the site of the present Fort Chipewyan. Harmon ascended the Peace from Fort Chipewyan in 1808 and mentions Fort Vermilion sixty miles above Vermilion Falls which would be near the site of the present Fort Vermilion. He also mentions Encampment Island Fort but does not give its position and it is not marked on Thompson's map. On Lake Athabaska, a new Fort Chipewyan was rising on the north side of the lake on the site of the present fort. Beside the North West Company fort was the Hudson's Bay Company fort built by Peter Fidler in 1802. It is not definitely known when the new fort was built by the North West Company, but it was there when Thompson came down in 1804. In the Mackenzie River region, the reader will remember that Laurent Leroux built a post on the north side of Great Slave in 1786. It was found to be too distant from the Northern Chipewyans and ten years later Duncan Livingstone was sent to build a fort eighty miles from the source of the Mackenzie, which would place it near the site of Fort Providence. John Thompson, who succeeded him in 1799, was killed on the lower reaches of the Mackenzie by the Esquimaux. A post was later established on the west end of Great Bear Lake soon afterwards known as Fort Franklin. In 1805 Alexander Mackenzie (not Sir Alexander) went down to old Fort Good Hope and on his return left Charles Grant to build a post at Blue Fish River, 60 miles below Fort Norman. There

¹ Thompson's name for Nottingham House.

was also a fort at the mouth of the Clearwater as shown on Thompson's map, where Fort McMurray now stands.

Some of the best men of the service were generally stationed inside the Athabasca and Mackenzie departments, indicating the importance of these regions as a fur supply for the North West Company. The maintenance of these posts was difficult and often hazardous owing to the possibility of starvation and the hostility of the Indians. At Great Bear Fort in 1811, all but one of the clerks starved to death.

Although the Athabaska River was becoming at this time the principal highway from the plains to the Pacific Coast, few posts were built along its course. The first we have any record of is Henry House, built by William Henry, cousin of the famous diarist, during the interval that Thompson was on the Columbia from June, 1811, to May, 1812. Reference is made to this post by several travellers who crossed the continent by this route. Gabriel Franchère, who descended the Athabasca in May, 1814, on his way from Fort Astoria with a number of North West Company men and Pacific Fur Company men, mentions this post as "an old house which the traders of the North West Company had once constructed, but which had been abandoned for four or five years."

The next post down the river was located on the west side on the lower end of Brule Lake. Franchère called it "Rocky Mountain House" and described it as "surrounded by steep rocks, inhabited only by mountain sheep and goats." It was really the original site of Jasper's House, and so called after Jasper Hawes or Howse, who built it. It was maintained as a provision depot to facilitate traffic through the mountains to the Columbia River posts. Joseph Decoigne, the founder of Fort D'Isle on the Saskatchewan River, above Fort George, was in charge.

From this point Franchère's party took canoes to a small post called "Hunter's Lodge" some miles above the junction of the Pembina with the Athabasca, and where a supply of canoes was kept for the use of North West Company men who went up and down the river.

Ross Cox, who passed down the river in 1817, with a brigade of over eighty people of the Pacific Fur Company from Astoria, says Henry's old fort was abandoned, and that "Jasper's House" was a "miserable concern of rough logs with only three apartments, but scrupulously clean." Jasper Hawes himself was now in charge. In later years Jasper's House was built farther up the river at the foot of Jasper Lake.

It will no doubt be observed by the reader that the development of the fur trade was confined to the northern part of the province. This was due to the character of the country. The open plains of Southern Alberta were not a good fur country. The only furs were buffalo and wolf skins, lightly prized by the trader in comparison with marten, beaver, black and silver fox of the Athabaska and Mackenzie districts.

The Blackfeet and Sarcees found no difficulty in reaching the trading posts on the Saskatchewan and could travel at all seasons of the year.

The only post by this time in the south country was Chesterfield House at the confluence of the Red Deer River and the south branch of the Saskatchewan. It was built by Macdonald of Garth for the North West Company in 1805. It was soon abandoned, however, and not re-built until after the union of 1821. The Hudson's Bay Company and XY Company had posts on the same site.

Conditions of living and trade at the posts in Alberta were much the same as in other parts of the North-West. Alexander Henry, the younger, who spent many years in the Red River, Saskatchewan and Columbia districts for the North West Company, has left in his extensive journals an instructive picture of life in the province at the end of the 18th century. Henry arrived at Fort Vermilion, situated as we have seen on the North Saskatchewan, opposite where the Vermilion debouches into the Saskatchewan from the south, in September, 1808, and spent three years on the Saskatchewan visiting at different and frequent intervals the various posts from the Vermilion to the headwaters in the Rocky Mountains. During this period the bitter opposition that characterized the relations of the North West Company and the Hudson's Bay Company had not developed. From Henry's observations and Harmon's express statements, we learn that the rival companies and their men lived on amicable terms. The whole occupation of the people, Indians and traders, was obtaining food and fur. Indians exchanged their furs for the merchandise of the company which was imported into the country by the Hudson's Bay Company via York House and Fort Churchill and by the North West Company via Fort William and Rainy Lake. Transportation was by York Boats, canoes, dogs and horses. Red River carts were not used in Alberta until many years later. Horses were procured from the Blackfeet and Henry tells us the price of a horse in his day was a keg of Blackfoot rum, 2 fathoms of new twist tobacco, 20 balls and powder enough to fire them, one awl, one scalper, one falcher, one worm, 1 P. C. glass, one steel and one flint. "We did not mix our liquor," he says, "so strong as we did for tribes who are more accustomed to use it. To make a nine gallon keg of liquor we generally put in four or five quarts of high wine, then filled it up with water. For the Crees and Assiniboines we put in six quarts of high wine and for the Saulteurs eight or nine quarts." Horse stealing was very common among the Indians and they were bold enough to steal from the company's herds. In fact horse stealing persisted in the North-West until it was finally and effectually stamped out by the N. W. M. P. and Chief Justice Sifton over a century later.

When the goods arrived in the fall the Indians thronged the forts to get their supplies, which were advanced for the winter's hunt. Henry calls this "giving debts for the winter." The utmost diplomacy and firmness was necessary in handling the various tribes who frequented the forts; for example, at Vermilion in 1808 and 1809 Henry tells us that he traded with the Crees and a few Slaves from the north, with the Assini-

boines from Battle River, the Blackfeet, Bloods and some Sarcees from the south. Every tribe was a rival of every other one. For this reason the fur traders tried to keep the tribes separated by having each one attend a certain fort. For example, the Peigans traded at Fort Augustus (Edmonton) and Rocky Mountain House. The Bloods and Blackfeet, however, were not allowed to trade at Rocky Mountain House until about 1860. When one considers that there was no organized government and no police within thousands of miles, the accomplishment of the task of preserving the life of the trader and those of his men, not to mention the maintenance of peace and order necessary to pursue successful commerce with all tribes, —seems a miracle.

In addition to furs, the traders of the Saskatchewan traded their goods for buffalo and moose meat, pemmican and dried berries. Pemmican was one of the principal articles of trade in the Saskatchewan country. It was taken for example to Cumberland House, and shipped to the northern posts on the Athabaska and Mackenzie, which were never so fortunate in the matter of a safe supply of food, if reliance was placed on local resources of those distant posts. Sometimes the pemmican was shipped overland from the Saskatchewan to Isle a la Crosse and thence to the Athabasca posts. Bateaux were built expressly for this purpose at Fort George where there was considerable timber. The Indians were continually arriving at the forts during the winter with their furs. It was customary for the tribe to come in a body. A short distance from the fort they halted and sent a deputation of young men to announce their arrival. Presents consisting of six inches of tobacco twist and a pint of Indian rum were sent to each principal man of the tribe. After regaling themselves the Chief and his principal men came in and met the factor, and trading began. Prices were fixed by a tariff agreed upon for the season's business at the big meeting at Fort William in the previous summer. In the spring packing commenced for the long journey to Hudson's Bay or Lake Superior. During the winter life at the fort was a busy one for all. While waiting for the Indians to come in with their season's catch, the men at the forts were engaged in various tasks. Some built bateaux to carry 90 pound bags of pemmican and kegs of grease. Others built new canoes or repaired the old ones and searched the woods for bark and gum. Still others sawed boards for the houses. Hunters were kept at each establishment to secure food and supplement the catch of fur by the Indians. Many of the posts, such as Vermilion, White Earth House and Edmonton House had immense ice houses where hundreds of large buffalo carcasses were stored. Henry tells us in the winter of 1809 he packed 380 front quarters and 530 hind quarters of buffalo meat in his ice house. When the North West Company abandoned Fort Vermilion May 31st, 1810, "400 limbs of buffalo meat still frozen" were left in the ice house. The women busied themselves stretching buffalo skins and sewing pemmican bags. There was constant travelling up and down the

river between the various posts. Men and goods were transferred and exchanged according to the necessity of the respective posts. For example at White Earth House in 1810 the barley was frozen, so Henry sent his harvesters to Edmonton to reap a splendid harvest at that post.

We get a still more intimate glimpse of life on the river and plain from Henry's story of the establishment of White Earth House in 1810. As we have seen, Fort Vermilion and Fort Augustus were abandoned in 1810 for a new post at the mouth of the White Earth River. It was a joint venture of the North West and Hudson's Bay Companies. The post was a compact little village composed of two distinct communities representing two great trading companies. This was before the savage and bloody conflict that later disgraced the conduct of both companies in the years between 1811 and 1821. The population of the post included 135 North West Company and 85 Hudson's Bay Company people. Henry and Hallett laid out the ground together which was enclosed by a stockade. Within the stockade positions were assigned for the houses of each company separated by another stockade which divided the entire enclosure. Henry's workmen ate a bag of pemmican a day. All summer the work went merrily on. Warehouses were built and covered with boards sawn from timber in the near-by woods. Workmen's houses and the Big House for the Chief Factor were built before the winter set in. Some were covered with earth or bark and plastered with the white mud that gave its name to the post. Stockades were cut and stones gathered for the chimneys of the houses. The logs and heavy planks were drawn from the woods by a drag or what Henry calls "a go-devil." A blacksmith's shop and a hen house were erected and Henry says he had to make a separate coop for his rooster, for as he notes in his journal with apparent regret, this rooster killed one of the two chickens he raised that summer. Fields were cleared for barley and potatoes and turnips and radishes were sown in the woods. Women picked strawberries, raspberries and cranberries to mix with the pemmican. Haying was finished on August 29th, the men having put up more than 2000 bundles. Altogether Henry was well satisfied with the work of the summer, though he remarked "The men work as usual but they take their own time and smoke very often." If Henry was alive in 1923 he would readily recognise many of his old gang. It is worthy of note, however, that throughout the entire season the men did not work on Sunday but once. That was on September 16th and they worked that Sunday on the condition that they would get a holiday when the brigade arrived from Fort William.

SECOND PERIOD
1811-1821

CHAPTER III.

RIVAL FUR COMPANIES—SELKIRK PURCHASE—NAMES OF CHIEF FACTORS—CHIEF TRADERS.

The history of the ten years from 1811 to 1821 is concerned with the bitter and bloody rivalry of the two big fur companies,—The North West Company and the Hudson's Bay Company. The struggle commenced on the Red River with the establishment of the Selkirk settlement and spread to Athabasca, the richest fur region in the whole North-West. Lord Selkirk had become the controlling shareholder in the Hudson's Bay Co., and launched his Red River colonization scheme in opposition to Sir Alexander Mackenzie, John Inglis, Edward Ellice and other Nor'Westers who held Hudson's Bay Company stock. Mackenzie advised the Nor'West partners to buy the controlling interests in the Hudson's Bay Company but Simon McGillivray thought it was easier to fight their opponents or divide the territory, and proposed that the Hudson's Bay Company should restrict their operations to the Hudson's Bay area and allow the North West Company the freedom of the Athabaska and Saskatchewan and Red River districts. Selkirk, however, had obtained high legal opinion on the legality of the Hudson's Bay Charter and believed that the Company had exclusive rights, territorial and otherwise, throughout the Hudson's Bay area and the entire North-West. He therefore saw no reason for sharing with others what he thought belonged exclusively to himself.

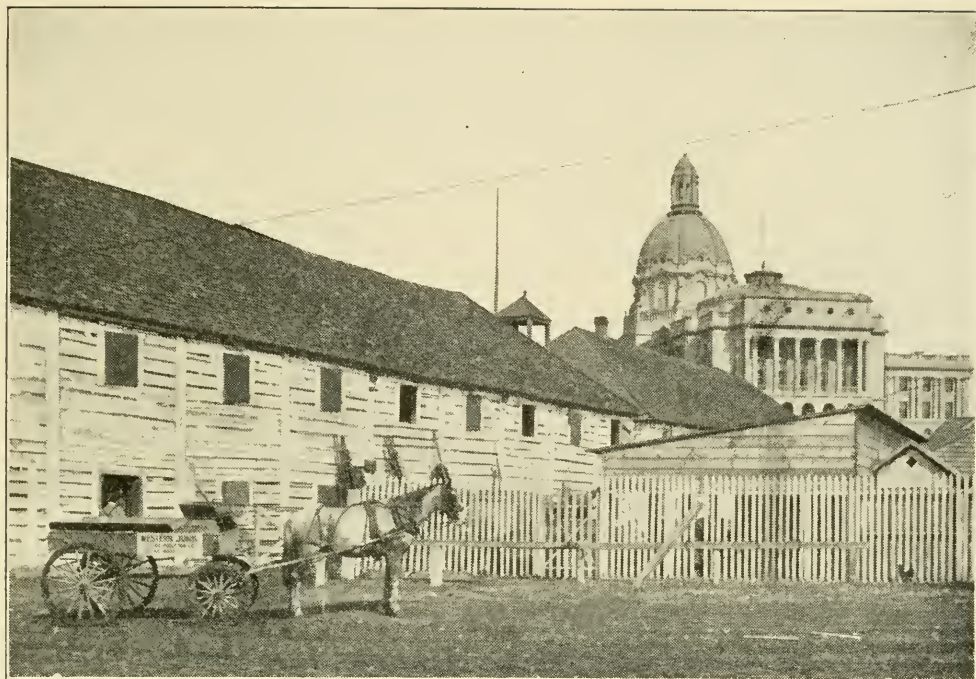
Had the Nor-Westers taken the advice of Mackenzie the conflict of violence and plunder would have been avoided and the course of events materially changed. The first conflict arose out of Selkirk's attempt to oust the North West Company from the immense land grant he had secured from the Hudson's Bay Company along the Red River,—116,000 square miles comprising Manitoba and a large portion of what is now the State of Minnesota. It soon became a life and death struggle for the control of the fur trade of the entire North-West. Acting on the advice of experienced Canadians in the western fur trade, like Colin Robertson and John Clarke, Selkirk decided to adopt new methods and employ Canadians instead of Orkney men in the service of the Company. Both Robertson and Clarke were old Nor'Westers. Robertson had been at Fort Augustus with Macdonald of Garth in the early days, but quarrelling with that haughty bourgeois he stepped out of the North West Fort and readily obtained employment at the Hudson's Bay Company Post, a gunshot away. He was just the man for Selkirk,—brave, resourceful, an

experienced trader and traveller, and burning with hatred against his former employers. Clarke was known as "Fighting John Clarke." He left the service of the North West Company in 1810 and joined the Astor Expedition to the mouth of the Columbia. After the purchase of that enterprise by the Nor'Westers he then took service with the Hudson's Bay Company. For the first time in the history of the fur trade, the Nor'Westers were to be opposed by men as skilled in dealing with the natives, as daring and resourceful in means of attack and defense, in a vast region where neither form of government nor law or order had been established. "The Lords of the Lakes and Forests" were to be challenged for the supremacy of the North-West.

When Selkirk purchased his 116,000 square miles, he deemed himself as much the owner of the soil in fee simple, as the homesteader of today who obtains his patent from the Crown, and as legally empowered to resist and oust all trespassers. "With respect to our rights of landed property, that is universally considered as clear and quite unquestionable," he wrote to Miles McDonnell, June 30th, 1813. He was determined that the North West Company should not obtain any prescriptive right by unmolested occupation. "The North West Company must be compelled to quit my lands, especially my posts at the Forks," he wrote on March 31st, 1816. "You must give them solemn warning that the land belongs to the Hudson's Bay Company. They should be treated as poachers. We are so fully advised of the unimpeachable validity of these rights of property, there can be no scruple in enforcing them when you have the physical means." The Nor'Westers, who regarded themselves as the lineal descendants of the French in the Interior, were ready to answer the challenge of physical means. They had occupied the country before the Hudson's Bay traders and claimed it by title of prior occupation. Now they were eager to doubly confirm that title by conquest.

The first act in the exercise of this overlordship of Selkirk's, was contained in the Order of January 8th, 1814. It reminds us of one of the food orders of the Food Board in the late war. Governor Miles McDonnell, in the name of Lord Selkirk, forbade the export of fur or provisions from the District of Assiniboia by water or land for a period of twelve months. Such a drastic policy of restriction struck a hard blow at the trade of the Nor'Westers. The North West Company brigades depended in a great measure upon the buffalo meat of the Red River for their food supply. To add to the dilemma the War of 1812 between Canada and the United States cut off the North West Company supplies from Montreal. The brigades and posts were dependent therefore solely upon the Red River and the Saskatchewan districts. Most of the supplies at this time originated in the Red River District. The native population lived by buffalo hunting. Selkirk's order, therefore, involved serious consequences for the people and the company.

Governor McDonnell followed up his Order by the seizure of 600 bags



OLD HUDSON'S BAY FORT, EDMONTON



HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY, EDMONDTON

of pemmican of the North West Company at Fort Souris. This was the first writ of attachment ever issued in the North-West. John Spencer, a member of Selkirk's Council of Assiniboia, was the Sheriff. While Spencer was at Souris, John Warren, with a party of armed Hudson's Bay Company followers, scoured the country around Pembina for the Plain Rangers, and seized their pemmican stores. This looks like an arbitrary and ungrateful act towards those who had befriended the colonists during the first years of their sojourn at Red River. McDonnell did his work with vim and vengeance.

One can easily imagine the indignation of the Nor'Westers at the big meeting at Fort William that summer. "It is the first time the Nor'Westers have permitted themselves to be insulted," said William McGillivray, and insult to the proud "Lords of the Lakes and Forests" was more galling than financial loss. From that day there was civil war in the North-West. The one bright spot in the dark tragedy of plunder, violence and bloodshed, was the staunch impartiality of the Indians from the Red River to the Athabasca. And this is true of the Indians all through North-West history. They have never risen against the white man as such for invading their territories. They have been cajoled and deluded into rebellion, but always by designing factions. This was true in 1816, in 1870 and in 1885. Nothing could induce old Chief Peguis of the Saulteaux to join either the Hudson's Bay Company or the North West Company. He has beaten President Wilson as a model of "strict neutrality."

Governor McDonnell followed up his food order with a still more exasperating order, viz., notice to the North West Company to quit. This notice was issued to the North West Company partners in charge of Posts in the District of Assiniboia. It was dated October 21st, 1814 and ordered the North West Company to quit their posts and premises within six months. The details of the events that quickly followed in Red River are not part of our story. We are not concerned with the arrest of Governor McDonnell by Duncan Cameron, the North West Company agent at Fort Gibraltar, the arrest of Cameron in retaliation by Colin Robertson, the tragedy of Sevenoaks, the capture of Fort William by Selkirk and his visit to the colony. Any reference to these events is made for the purpose of relating them to the events to which they gave rise in the distant Athabasca District. Governor McDonnell was arrested June, 1815 and sent to Canada. The Selkirk colonists in alarm fled down the river to Lake Winnipeg, hoping to obtain succour from the Hudson's Bay Company brigade due from York Factory. Help came, however, from quite a different quarter. Colin Robertson and John Clarke, who had been in Canada recruiting men for the Hudson's Bay service, arrived from the East with a large number of Canadian traders and voyageurs bound for the Athabaska, where they were determined to establish a line of Hudson's Bay posts and fight fire with fire. Robertson rallied the disconsolate colon-

ists and led them back to their homes on the Red River. Clarke went on to the Athabaska, vowing to send every "Nor'Wester out a prisoner to the Bay". Hardened and resourceful old veteran though he was, many troublous days were to pass before his boast was realised. He came to dire disaster. The expedition was divided into three brigades. One was stationed at Lake Athabasca, one went down the Slave River to Slave Lake, and the third under Clarke himself, went up the Peace River. So confident was he of capturing the North West Company Forts that he thought it unnecessary to take in a full winter's supply of food. The wily Nor'-Westers proved more than a match for him. He stormed Fort Vermilion without success and McIntosh, the agent in charge, chased him back to Athabaska. At Fort Chipewyan he was opposed by Archibald McGillivray and Samuel Black, who succeeded in keeping the Indians from trading with him and finally, after inviting him to dine with them one evening, they clapped him into prison. Many of his men died of starvation, others were coaxed or flogged into service with the North West Company. Of the gallant and dashing crew that followed "Fighting John" to the North, only a pitiable remnant ever reached Fort William again.

The affray at Sevenoaks in June, 1816, in which Governor Semple lost his life in the capture of Fort Douglas by the Nor'-Westers under A. N. Macleod and Cuthbert Grant, followed by the capture of the North West Company stronghold at Fort William a few weeks later by Lord Selkirk, fanned the hostility of the rival companies into a white heat. Both sides now began to play for the climax of the tragedy.

The events of this year made a profound impression in Canada and the Old Country. A Royal Proclamation was issued by the Prince Regent in Quebec in 1817 commanding all persons in the Indian territories to desist from any hostile aggression and requiring all officers and men formerly in His Majesty's service to leave the service of the Hudson's Bay Company and the North West Company within twenty-four hours after receiving knowledge of the Proclamation. The Proclamation further specially directed that no blockades should be made to prevent or interrupt the free passage of traders and their merchandise, furs and provisions throughout the North West Territories and that all persons should be free to pursue their accustomed trade without molestation. Both parties decided to ignore the Proclamation. Governor Williams, who had succeeded Semple as Governor of Assiniboia, declared the Proclamation was "all damned nonsense" and that he "would drive every Nor'Wester out of the country or die in the attempt". Up in the Athabaska District Archibald Norman Macleod was equally defiant. His orders to his bullies were: "Go to it, my lads. There is no law in the Indian Territory".

The Hudson's Bay Company outfitted Colin Robertson and John Clarke a second time for the Athabaska. The expedition left Montreal in April, 1819, and reached Fort Chipewyan in October with 130 armed men. It was to be a supreme effort and cost the company twenty thousand pounds.

On his way up Robertson found that the Nor'Westers had so intimidated the Indians that they would have nothing to do with the Hudson's Bay Company men. "Well may the Nor'Westers boast of their success in the North," writes Robertson, "not an Indian dare speak to the Hudson's Bay Company". Robertson established himself in the old Hudson's Bay Company quarters and in a few days forty of the tents of the Indians came over from the Nor'Westers. But the latter were not to be easily beaten. Some of the most experienced and daring of the Grand Partners were at Fort Chipewyan that winter—Simon McGillivray, Benjamin Frobisher, A. N. Macleod, Angus Shaw, William McIntosh, John Duncan Campbell, Geo. McTavish and Samuel Black (Clarke's tormentor of three years before). "Black, the Nor'Wester, is now in his glory, leading his bullies," writes Robertson. "Every evening they come over to our Fort in a body, calling on our men to come out and fight pitched battles". Within ten days after his arrival, Robertson was captured and imprisoned. As the Nor'West bullies carried him away, Robertson shouted derisively, "We will capture them as we captured them at Fort Williams, with the sun shining on our faces." This was the first intimation to the natives of Athabaska that the North West Company had suffered the loss of their great stronghold, Fort William. The equal strength of the opposing parties may be surmised from the fact that the Hudson's Bay Company men did not attempt to rescue Robertson. Notwithstanding that he was kept in a small room under guard day and night, he outwitted his captors and was successful in sending messages to his men regularly throughout the winter by means of cipher despatches secreted in whiskey kegs which the North West Company allowed him to receive from time to time. In the spring, the Nor'Westers resolved to send Robertson out a prisoner to Fort William with the brigade. With the same brigade came McTavish, McGillivray, Shaw, McIntosh and Frobisher. On the way down Robertson escaped from them at Cumberland House. Couriers had brought the news of his capture to Governor Williams at Red River. The old warrior was now to prove his disdain of the Royal Proclamation by more than words. He organized a company of DeMeuron soldiers, who had been brought to the Red River two years before by Lord Selkirk. These were the men who captured Fort William and were going to fulfil Robertson's threat "We will capture them as we captured them at Fort William". He set out for the Saskatchewan and took up his position where that river debouches into Lake Winnipeg at Grand Rapids. Here he met John Clarke from the Athabaska with two canoes on June 16th. From Clarke he learned the Nor'Westers were not far away. He had two 4-pounder brass cannon and a number of barges. He placed the barges across the river, mounted his guns and waited for his prey. On the 18th Frobisher and Campbell arrived in two light canoes. On the 23rd the remainder of the North West Company partners arrived at Grand Portage and were easily captured with all the clerks and voyageurs. Upon Shaw remonstrating with

Williams against this illegal stoppage on the King's highway and the scandalous defiance it caused of the Proclamation issued by the Prince Regent, Williams replied in heated words "I do not care a curse for the Prince Regent's Proclamation. Lord Bathurst and Sir John Sherbrooke, by whom it was framed, are damned rascals. I act upon the Charter of the Hudson's Bay Company and as Governor and magistrate in this territory I have sufficient authority and will do as I think proper." Upon a further remonstrance Williams stated in a rage: "As for Lord Bathurst, he is bribed by Nor'West gold; and Sir John Sherbrooke, the judges, juries and Crown officers of Canada are a set of damned rascals, and for our part we shall act independently of the rascally Government of Canada."

From the Journals of the North West Company it is apparent that the prisoners were roughly handled and treated with a rough handed retribution whetted with revenge. Frobisher became violently insane from a blow on the head. With Campbell and McTavish he was sent down to York Factory. Here they met John Franklin with letters of introduction to both the North West and the Hudson's Bay Factors of the Athabaska. One can imagine the chagrin and despair of the proud lords of the North West Company to be so found, prisoners in the hands of their enemies. Shaw and McTavish were sent to England on Franklin's ship as steerage passengers. Campbell escaped overland to Canada and Frobisher was held a close prisoner. The treatment he received was harsh and barbarous, even for the North-West at that time. With his faithful servants, Turcotte and Lepine he escaped on Sept. 30th. After a tedious journey and terrible sufferings he almost reached the first North West Company Post on the Saskatchewan. He became so ill he could not walk. His faithful comrades carried him until they were forced to give up. At his earnest request they left him and hastened to the post to secure help. It was seven days before they returned to find him, lying by the embers of the fire they had kindled for him,—dead.

These events made the men on both sides sorely disgusted with such a ruinous policy and though Robertson was captured the following year at Grand Rapids by Campbell of the North West Company (the same Campbell captured by Williams and the DeMeurons and taken a prisoner to Montreal), the strife was virtually at an end. On his way to Montreal Robertson escaped from the North West Company Brigade and made his way to the United States. He heard the North West Company partners were proposing a union with the Hudson's Bay Company, and that some of the partners were on the way to London. He forthwith resolved to go to London and advise the General Court that union was unnecessary and that the North West Company had been overcome. Union, however, was the only policy possible if the fur trade was to be carried on at all, and less violent counsel than that of the unconquerable Robertson prevailed.

The death of Lord Selkirk and that of Sir Alexander Mackenzie in 1820 removed the animating spirits in the respective rival companies and opened

the way for amalgamation. A meeting of the partners was held at Fort William in July, 1820, at which union was discussed. Delegates were sent to England to confer with the London principals of the North West Company. When they reached London they found that union had already been effected. Edward Ellice produced the deed poll signed by Governor Berens on behalf of the Hudson's Bay Company and by William McGillivray, Simon McGillivray and Edward Ellice for the North West Company. The deed poll had been executed March 26, 1821. This agreement formed the basis of the amalgamation until a new deed poll was executed June 6, 1834.

The union was really a merger of the North West Company into the Hudson's Bay Company. The coalition continued the old name of "Gentlemen Adventurers trading into Hudson's Bay". The jurisdiction of the company was extended to include all the territory hitherto disputed by the North West Company. This jurisdiction was sanctioned by an Act of the British Parliament (1 & 2 Geo. IV, Ch. 66). This Act after relating the evil consequences of competition, the animosities, feuds, injury to Indians, breaches of the peace, the violence and losses of life, extended the jurisdiction of the Courts of Upper and Lower Canada to the control and punishment of persons guilty of crimes and offenses within Rupert's Land and the North Western Territory, and so removed all doubts respecting a similar Act passed in 1803. The Act gave power to the Crown to grant a license to the Hudson's Bay Company for the exclusive privilege of trading for a period of not longer than twenty-one years. For the first period the license was rent free, but thereafter a rent was to be reserved and form part of the land revenues of the Crown. Power was also given to the Crown to constitute courts and issue commissions authorizing justices of the peace to hold Courts of Record within the North-West for any but capital offenses and any civil actions where the amount in issue was under 200 pounds. No such courts were ever established, and the only courts that grew up in the country were those formed by the Council of Assiniboia and the Grand Council of Rupert's Land. The Act also enjoined strict regulation and control of the liquor traffic among the Indians and in this respect, it may be said to the credit of the Hudson's Bay Company, that they honourably observed this part of their contract.

Acting under the authority of this Act of Parliament, His Majesty granted an exclusive license dated June 6, 1821, in which the Company was required to give security in the sum of five thousand pounds for the due execution of the terms of the grant.

"The deed poll made provision for the apportionment of the annual profits and loss of the fur trade. The first charge on the proceeds was a 5% interest payment on the capital, made annually to the proprietors. Of the net profits and losses 60% was reserved to the proprietors, the balance went to the wintering partners. The share for the Gentlemen in the Interior was subdivided into 85 equal parts, of which two went to each

chief factor and one to each chief trader. Under the deed poll of 1821 the partners were granted one year in every seven as furlough. On retirement the chief factor and chief traders became entitled to full profits according to their rank for one year and half profit for a period of six years.”—(Publications of the Canadian Archives, No. 9, Vol. 1, p. 624.)

By the second deed poll the same rate of remuneration was continued to the wintering partners. This deed poll continued in operation until 1871, shortly after the transfer of the Hudson's Bay territory to the Dominion of Canada. By the terms of the deed poll of 1821 the following wintering partners were chosen from both sides:

“Chief Factors—Thomas Vincent, John Thompson, John Macdonald, James Bird, James Leith, John Haldane, Colin Robertson, Alexander Stewart, James Sutherland, John George McTavish, John Clarke, George Keith, John Dugald Cameron, John Charles, John Stuart, Alexander Kennedy, Edward Smith, John McLoughlin, John Davis, James Keith, Joseph Beioley, Angus Bethune, Donald MacKenzie, Alexander Christie, John McBean.”

“Chief Traders—William McKintosh, Jacob Corrigan, Thomas McMurray, Donald Mackintosh, John Peter Pruden, Allan Macdonnell, James Clouston, Daniel William Harmon, Roderic MacKenzie, John Spencer, Hugh Faries, John Lee Lewis, Andrew Stewart, James McMillan, Angus Cameron, John Warren Dease, William Brown, Simon McGillivray, William Connolly, Robert McVicar, Peter Warren Dease, John McLeod, John Rowand, Joseph Felix La Rocque, Alexander McDonald, Alexander Roderick McLeod, Joseph McGillivray, Roderick Mackenzie.”

“Under the Deed Poll of 1821 the following Chief Traders were promoted to Chief Factors—1822 William McKintosh; 1825, William Connolly and John Rowand; 1827, James McMillan; 1828, Allan Macdonnell, John Lee Lewis and Peter Warren Dease; 1830, Roderick Mackenzie; 1832, Duncan Finlayson. The following were promoted from clerkships to the rank of Chief Traders: 1821, Peter Skene Ogden and Samuel Black; 1822, Alexander Fisher; 1827, Cuthbert Cumming; 1828, Francis Heron, John Sieve-wright, Robert S. Miles, Duncan Finlayson, Colin Campbell, Alexander McTavish, Archibald McDonald; 1829, Robert Cowie, John Edward Harriott, Donald Ross; 1830, Aemilius Simpson and John Work; 1831, William Todd; 1833, James Hargreave and Nicol Finlayson.”

“During the period 1834-1843 the following promotions were made: Chief Factors—1834, Peter Skene Ogden; 1836, John Peter Pruden and Alexander R. Macleod; 1838, Hugh Faries, Angus Cameron and Samuel Black; 1840, Donald Ross and James Douglas; 1842, Archibald McDonald.

“Chief Traders—Richard Hardisty, John McLeod, Jr., Murdoch McPherson and John Tod; 1835, James Douglas, Thomas Fraser, George Gladman and Richard Grant; 1838, Donald Manson and William Nourse; 1840, Thomas Simpson, William H. McNeil, Peter C. Pambrun and George Barnston; 1841, John Bell, Thomas Corcoran, Alexander Simpson and

John McLean; 1842, William G. Rae, John Swanston, Francis Ermatinger and Charles Ross; 1843, John M. Yale."

Nicolas Garry, one of the Governing Committee in London was sent out to reorganize the affairs of the amalgamating companies and distribute the offices. A meeting for this purpose was held at Fort William in 1821. Here the partners signed the Deed Poll. This meeting was a memorable one and carries the mind forward to a similar meeting when on June 23, 1870, the wintering partners of the Hudson's Bay Company gathered at Norway House to sign the deed of surrender of the vast empire over which they had governed for two hundred years with a true imperial sway. One can only imagine with what suppressed passion and with what memories, bitter opponents like Colin Robertson and John Clarke met William McIntosh and Simon McGillivray around the peace table that day at Fort William. When the North West Company delegates met Edward Ellice in London and read the Deed Poll for the first time, they bitterly exclaimed, "This is not amalgamation, but is submersion". To a man, however, they were good losers and loyally supported the union to the last. In the distribution of officers it is said the North West Company partners got the best districts and the best positions. Our readers will no doubt think this is fair, because on the whole the North West Company partners had the most experience in the Indian territories and probably were the most capable to carry on successful trading with the natives. Garry apparently conducted affairs with an eye single to the future success of the Hudson's Bay Company.

On his own responsibility Garry assigned the posts as follows:

(1) Athabaska Department, comprising Fort Chipewyan and posts on the Lake, Slave Lake and River, Peace River and New Caledonia—James Leith, Chief Factor; Chief of Department, Edward Smith, Chief Factor; William Mackintosh, Joseph McGillivray, Peter W. Dease, Hugh Faries, A. R. McLeod, Chief Traders.

(2) Saskatchewan, James Sutherland, Chief Factor; John Rowand, Chief Trader.

(3) New Caledonia, John Stewart, Chief Factor.

(4) Cumberland House, William Kennedy, Chief Factor.

(5) Columbia, John Haldane, J. D. Cameron, Chief Factors; James Macmillan, Chief Trader.

(6) English River, James Keith, Chief Factor; J. F. La Roque, Chief Trader.

(7) York Fort, J. M. McTavish, Chief Factor.

(8) Moose Factory, Angus Bethune, Chief Factor.

(9) Lesser Slave Lake, William Connolly, Chief Trader.

(10) Red River, James Bird, Chief Factor.

(11) Upper Red River, John McDonald, Chief Trader.

(12) Fort Dauphin, Allan Macdonnell, Chief Trader.

(13) Lake Winnipic, J. W. Dease, Chief Trader.

- (14) Lake Nipigon, Roderic McKenzie, Chief Trader.
- (15) Pic, Alexander McTavish, Clerk.
- (16) Michicopoton, Donald McIntosh, Chief Trader.
- (17) Fort William, Alexander Stewart, Chief Trader.
- (18) Lake Huron, John McBean, Chief Factor.
- (19) River Winnipic, Thomas McMurray, Chief Trader.
- (20) Temiskaming, Angus Cameron, Chief Trader.
- (21) Churchill, John Charles, Chief Factor; John Lee Lewis, Chief Trader; A. Macdonnell, Clerk.—(Garry's Journal.)

On the completion of these negotiations, Director Garry proceeded westward accompanied by Simon McGillivray, stopping at Rainy Lake, Winnipeg River, Red River and various points along the route, both exhorting the Indians that they should henceforth obey the Hudson's Bay Company. As a symbol of the union a new fort was built at the forks of the Red and Assiniboine rivers and named Fort Garry. Forts Douglas and Gibraltar were dismantled and passed into memory with the struggles of the past.

THIRD PERIOD
1821-1824

CHAPTER IV.

THE COUNCIL OF RUPERT'S LAND—SETTLEMENT OF RETIRED EMPLOYES.

The history of Alberta from 1821 to 1870 is the history of the fur trade. There was no settlement except a few retired Hudson's Bay Company servants in the vicinity of Edmonton, who assisted the Company in the limited agriculture pursued at this post. The only centres of settlement in the whole North-West were within the old district of Assiniboia. Settlement advanced in the Red River and the buffalo became scarce in that region. The Cree and Assiniboiné Indians followed them westward to the Plains of Saskatchewan and Alberta. War between the Blackfoot nations and the invaders became frequent and made settlement impossible. Apart from the Minutes of the Hudson's Bay Company, and the meagre references in the books and diaries of travellers, such as Gabriel Franchère, Ross Cox, Alexander Ross, Paul Kane, Milton and Cheadle, Southesk and Butler, there are few records available. Of course there was very little to record. It was not until the Canadian Government sent S. J. Dawson and Henry Yuill Hind to the North-West in 1857 that the people of the eastern portion of the Dominion began to learn of the resources of the North-West and its suitability for colonization and agriculture. The reports of these eminent men made a profound impression in Canada and as soon as Confederation was consummated the eyes of the Dominion were turned to the west and active steps were inaugurated to annex the Empire ruled over by the Hudson's Bay Company. The facts of this chapter will, therefore, deal with the activities of the great fur trading corporation; only indirect reference will be made to the relations of the Company to the growing colony at Red River. Although this was the storm centre of the period and the events that took place there led to the surrender of the Hudson's Bay Charter, it properly belongs to the history of Manitoba and has been well told in other works on the North-West.

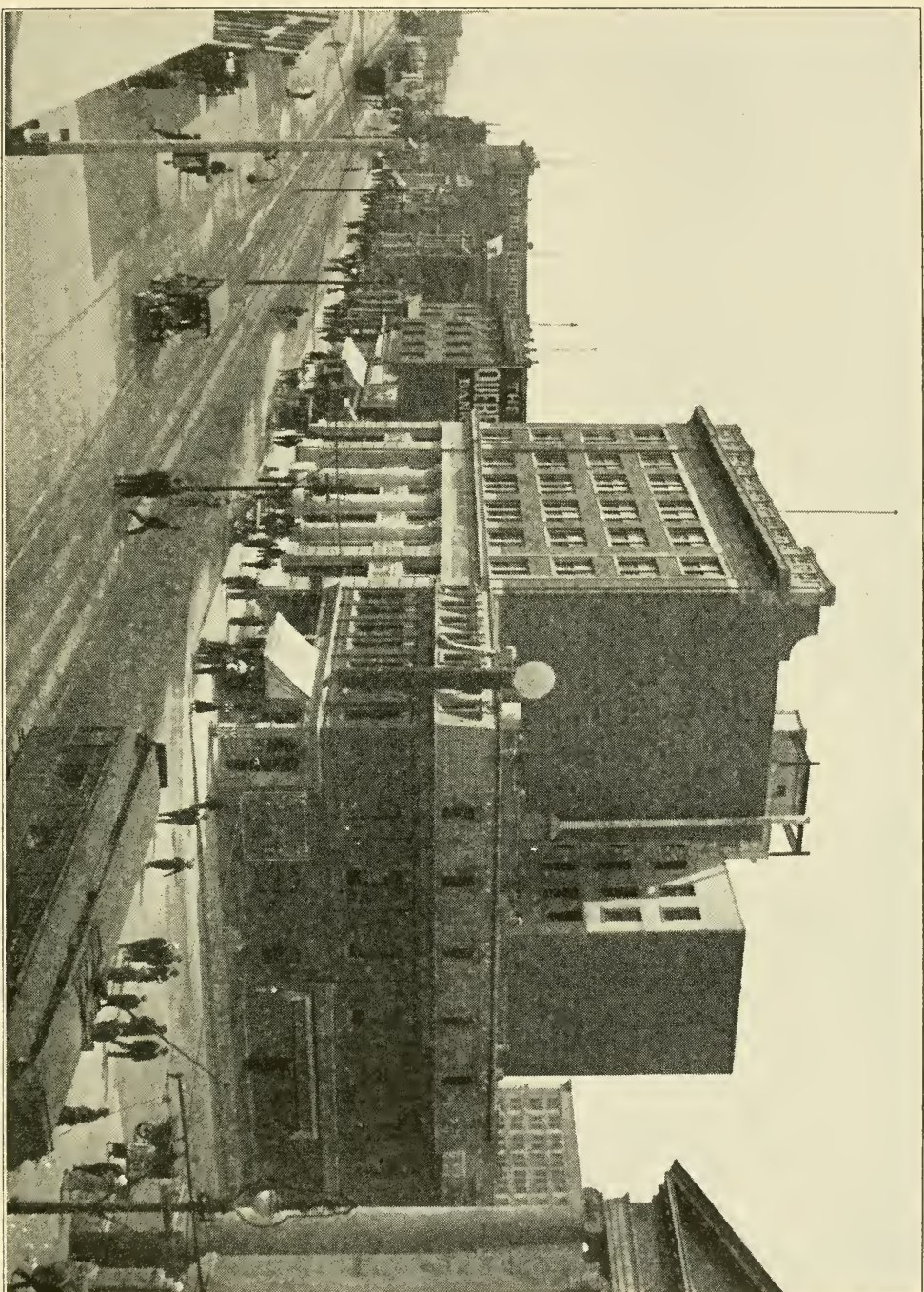
After the coalition the territories of the new company were organized into four departments—The Montreal, Southern, Western and Northern. The Montreal had control of the fur trade in the Canadas and Labrador. The Southern Department embraced the territory between the Hudson's Bay and the Montreal Department. The Western Department included all the territory west of the Rocky Mountains. The Northern Department, the one in which we are now concerned, included the vast

district lying between the Hudson's Bay and the Rocky Mountains and between the United States and the Arctic Ocean. It was the largest and the most important of the four. The government of these territories was entrusted to the Council of Rupert's Land which was composed of all the Chief Factors. These officers attended ex-officio while the chief traders were generally invited to attend the meetings of the Council and when so attending they had the same right to discuss and vote as the Chief Factors in all matters except the promotion of officers. The Chief Executive officer was called the Governor of Rupert's Land. This Council must be carefully distinguished from the Council of the Assiniboia which was the body that ruled over that part of the Hudson's Bay Territory granted in 1811 to Lord Selkirk. It was subordinate to the Grand Council of Rupert's Land and many of its decisions and enactments were over-ruled by the superior council. In fact the governmental organization of the west at this time suggests to us the analogy that exists between the Federal and Provincial governing bodies in Canada at the present time.

We get a good idea of the work of the Council of Rupert's Land from the testimony of Edward Ellice in his evidence before the Parliamentary Committee of 1857 in the following statement:

"A Council is composed, in the interior, of the Chief Factors, the higher class, which meets every year. It has met at different places but it meets generally at the Red River. The trade is directed, first of all, by the Board of Directors at home, but, like the East India Company, they have their Council in the interior, which regulates the local concerns of the Company. That Council, which meets every year, takes into consideration the accounts of the preceding year, audits the ensuing year's trade, stations the various servants of the Company at such posts as the Council may think they are best qualified to occupy, and if vacancies occur in the service, recommends to the directors at home the fit persons then being in the service to succeed to those vacancies. So that, in fact, the whole affairs of the Company, so far as the fur trade is concerned, are conducted by that Council, subject to the control and superintendence of the Board of Directors at home. . . . The Council consists of as many as can conveniently assemble, who act for the whole body. . . . All appointments are made by the Government at home; the Council only recommend. . . . They have no power, except with the consent and concurrence of the Board at home." Q. 5793.

The Minutes of the Meetings of this Council is the official history of the North-West for 50 years. These with the standing rules and regulations comprised the legal and commercial system of the land. A great many of these minutes have never been published, but we are fortunate in having the minutes from 1830 to 1843 printed by the Canadian Archives, Publication No. 9, edited by Professor E. H. Oliver of the University of Saskatchewan. An introduction to the Minutes written by Mr. Isaac Cowie, formerly a Commissioned officer of the Hudson's Bay Company,



JASPER AVENUE LOOKING WEST FROM MCDUGAL AVENUE, EDMONTON

is reproduced here because it presents a splendid bird's eye view of the work of the Council for the period under review.

"The data contained in these minutes furnish a skeleton history, during that important period, of those parts of the old 'Hudson's Bay Territories,' held under both Royal Charter and License, in the countries now comprising New Ontario, the three Prairie Provinces, the North West and Yukon Territories, and the Province of British Columbia, besides throwing light upon the operations of the Company in Russian America and in the States of Washington, Oregon and California, also in the Sandwich Isles.

"The main purpose of these annual meetings was to receive reports upon the operations of the previous year and to make arrangements for carrying on trade during the next, and, often, for many future years. Following the waterways, the chief means of communication in a country so favoured by nature in that respect, and, when these were interrupted, the lines of least resistance overland, pointed out by the tracks of wild animals and the trails and portages of the Indians, they solved the greatest problem set before them and their chief difficulty, in a land of magnificent distances, by means of the birch bark canoe, the 'inland' boat, and the main strength and skill of the voyageurs who manned them. The feats performed by these men in the battle with the wilderness and in the fight against immense distances have never been surpassed, if ever equalled. And the wise men who sat in Council and planned these campaigns in transportation so admirably a year or years in advance, so that 'brigades' starting from places as far apart as the lower Mackenzie River and from Red River District: and others from Fort Vancouver, at the mouth of the Columbia, and from York Factory on Hudson's Bay, were so nicely timed to meet at fixed points and exchange freight and passengers that they rarely failed to connect on schedule time. And this in a time when swift mail and telegraphic communication did not exist.

"The same wise foresight which regulated their system of transportation was displayed in every other detail of their business as traders. The interests of the fur trade were paramount; indeed fur was the only exportable product of the country before the railway age, and affected the life of every one in the Territories, including the settlers upon the Red River. There Thomas, fifth Earl of Selkirk, had made an attempt to found a colony, in opposition alike to the opinions of his enemies of the North West Company and of his friends of the Hudson's Bay Company. But, upon the cessation of hostilities between these rivals, when they became a united company, the old plan of the North Westers to form a settlement on the Rainy River for their retired servants (from which possibly may have originated Selkirk's subsequent colonizing idea) was carried out on the Red River, where their supernumeraries and those of the Hudson's Bay Company came to the number of 1,500, far exceeding all the settlers ever brought 'under the auspices of the Earl of Selkirk.'

Hence Sir George Simpson, in his journey round the world, states that the real settlement on the Red River began in 1821, when the union of the Companies led to the disbandment of their forces, many of these retiring to become settlers on the Red River, provided with means to start and experience in the country, including, in many cases, that gained by raising crops at the trading posts, where these were necessary to eke out the uncertain produce of the chase and fishery.

"It was only natural that a settlement composed chiefly of men who had served with them as companions in the wilds should be viewed with favour by the Councillors of Rupert's Land, many of whom contemplated spending the evening of their days, with their native children, surrounded by the comforts and conveniences afforded at Red River; where, moreover, the company's employees were each entitled 'for past services' to receive free grants of land out of the one-tenth reserved for that purpose in the original grant to Selkirk. Consequently the Minutes record from time to time the grant of money and allowances of imported 'luxuries' (as they were called in that time of expensive and difficult transportation) consisting of tea, sugar, rice, raisins, wines and liquors, to the Missionaries in the Colony; funds in aid of public works; and the establishment of experimental farms, for which fine live stock was imported.

"Besides being a convention on the business of the fur trade, the Governor and Council of the Northern Department of Rupert's Land (which exercised control over the minor Councils of the Southern and Montreal departments—in what are now the Provinces of Ontario and Quebec—as well as those of Columbia and New Caledonia beyond the Rocky Mountains) had, under the Royal Charter, power to make laws and act in a judicial capacity for and in the chartered territories. In these the only other legislative and executive Council was that of the Municipality of Assiniboia, which was composed of that portion of the great District of Assiniboia, granted to Lord Selkirk, extending fifty miles from the Forks down by the Red and up along the Red and Assiniboine rivers, and two miles back on each side of these rivers.

"In its legislative capacity the Northern Department Council was supreme over that of Assiniboia, whose enactments were on occasion disallowed by it, in fact the two councils stood in nearly similar relations as do the Dominion Parliament and Provincial Legislatures today. When the Governor of Rupert's Land was present the Governor of Assiniboia left the chair and became one of the Council. When a Chief Factor from another part of the territories visited Red River he, as a Councillor of Rupert's Land, took a seat by right as such in the Council of Assiniboia; but a Councillor of Assiniboia had no seat or right in the Council of Rupert's Land.

"During the early period when the Governors of Assiniboia were the nominees and agents of Selkirk, but appointed as Governors by the Company under their charter, much friction arose between such Governors

and the Chief Factors and Councillors of Rupert's Land who were in command of the fur trading 'Red River District.' But, afterwards, when the officer in charge of the 'Red River District' became ex-officio the Governor of Assiniboia also, this source of trouble ceased, and no Council of Assiniboia so presided over was likely to enact any regulation which the Governor knew would be objected to by the Council of the Northern Department of Rupert's Land, or the Governor and Committee in London. On this limitation reference may be made to the 'Report of the Law Amendment Committee' submitted to the Council of Assiniboia by Recorder Thom in May, 1851, which says:

"Our local legislature owes allegiance to the Governor and Council of Rupert's Land . . . and has no right to control any one of the Company's chartered powers.'

"To review or even briefly summarize all the acts of the Council of the Northern Department would require space not available in this publication. But from a rough general index the following headings to subjects of probable interest to the reader and student are taken: From Standing Rules and Regulations—Sale Tariff of Merchandise, Buffalo Robes and Leather to Settlers. Freight rates to and from York Factory. Freight and Passenger Rates on Ocean—to and from Hudson's Bay and Fort Vancouver (at end of series of Minutes). In the Minutes of each year would be found money grants for Red River gaol and police; to surgeons, surveyors, schools and clergymen; orders for colonial produce required by the Fur Trade, and prices to be paid therefor; regulation re imports by settlers from England; engagement and wages of boatmen; freight rates by Company's boats; employment of boats owned by settlers to freight to and from York Factory; the employment of Indians from outside the settlement to man such contractors' boats prohibited; and the establishment of Lower Fort Garry, the post at Portage la Prairie, and the Experimental Farms presided over by Chief Factor McMillan and Captain Cary.

"Outside of the colony, grants were given to Wesleyan Missions at York Factory, Norway House and Edmonton, and to the Roman Catholic mission on the Columbia. The making of a winter road, between the head of the tracking ground on Hayes' River and Norway House, was persisted in for several years, but was finally abandoned as more expensive than boating. Besides the regular mails by annual ship, summer brigades and winter expresses, one to Canada by Fort William and Saulte Ste. Marie, and another to St. Peters (near St. Paul, Minn.) were established. The sale of spirituous liquors to Indians was prohibited throughout the country, except at points where the fur trade was exposed to competition with American spirit dealers. Resolutions were yearly passed confirming the Standing Rule for the preservation of the beaver, and limiting the output of their skins from depleted districts. The Indians were to be compensated for abstaining from hunting these animals. By Standing Rule No.

38 the Company's employees were enjoined always to treat the Indians with kindness and humanity, and to invite them to attend the Sunday services, which the commandant of each post was directed to read by Rule No. 1. Annual lists of the Indians attached to each post were to be sent to headquarters, and a General Census was taken in 1837.

"One of the most interesting features of the Minutes to their descendants and other friends living in the North-West is the names, ranks, movements and emoluments of the Company's Chief Factors, Chief Traders, Clerks and Postmasters given from year to year. These are all of historical, and occasionally of legal value.

"The Company's activities covered a wide range of subjects, from meteorological observations and zoological collections for the British Museum, to general banking and receiving employees' savings on deposit at interest. But it is impossible within the allotted space to do justice to all the subjects mentioned in the Minutes; neither is it possible for one who has not derived his knowledge from other sources to read between the lines of the resolutions for the causes of which the resolutions were the result.

"Each Council was opened with the reading of the General Letter of the Governor, Deputy Governor and Committee (who subscribed themselves as 'Your Affectionate Friends to their trusty and well beloved partners in the Fur Trade')—the Chief Factors and Chief Traders. In the absence of copies of these letters and of the reports made annually to the Council by each officer in charge of a district, it is impossible to fully understand the resultant resolutions of this Council. All such documents are still kept private by the Company, although the time is long past when their publication could do any harm to their trade by divulging its secrets. Indeed, judging from the highly creditable exposure made by these Minutes of their mode of doing business and the laudable interest taken in the general well-being of their territories, the publication of these well preserved records would only redound to the credit of the Company's rule and to the confusion of their detractors. For it must be noted that the Minutes here for the first time published, were never intended when they were recorded for the eyes of the outside public, although each district and commissioned officer was entitled to a copy for their use and guidance. Few of the Chief Factors and Chief Traders, however, took precautions for the preservation of their copies, and we are indebted for these important revelations to the care of an exception to this rule, who handed them down to his children, who unlike too many others into whose hands such documents have fallen, have carefully preserved them.

"But they cover only a limited, though glorious, period in the history of that great company, whose officers and men in North America, serving with conspicuous 'courage and fidelity' succeeded by their effective occupation of the territories in preserving them for the British Crown until their union with Canada."

CHAPTER V.

GEORGE SIMPSON.

The patriarchal dictator who carried the Union into effect and administered the affairs of the new empire of the Hudson's Bay Company for 40 years was a young man who had spent but one year in the country. George Simpson came to the Athabaska District in 1821. He did not impress either Hudson's Bay Company men or Nor'Westers of that region with any knowledge of the fur trade, but, raised to the position of Governor of Rupert's Land, he at once exhibited a statesmanlike grasp of his duties. He was an excellent judge of men, a born diplomat, a most capable executive officer. He will always rank as one of the great founders of the empire of the North, on the American Continent. With Selkirk, Simpson stands out as one of the two most notable men of North-West history of the nineteenth century. Both were tinged with feudalism, one with the aim of developing a lucrative trade and harvesting rich dividends for his overlords; the other was resolved to plant the land system of the Old World in the New. Both had high and laudable motives for the welfare of those they governed. Selkirk did not live long enough to see the fulfilment of such a paternalistic policy and one cannot imagine Sir George Simpson's vigorous mind not foreseeing that the Hudson's Bay Company system was doomed to extinction. But Selkirk had the greater idea and will always be regarded as the greater of these two illustrious Scotchmen.

One of the first acts of the Council of Rupert's Land was to make a survey of the various posts of the two companies. Those that had been maintained for mere competition, as well as those which had proved unprofitable, were abandoned. Bow River Fort at the foot of the Rocky Mountains, after a brief existence, was abandoned in 1823, and Pembina the year before. Chesterfield House at the Red Deer forks was rebuilt in 1822 by Donald Mackenzie but abandoned some years later on account of the implacable hostility of the Blackfeet. Simpson kept himself thoroughly informed of the details of the fur trade and visited the various posts from time to time. The methods of transportation were investigated, York Boats were adopted and a thorough reorganization effected by this masterful administrator.

The reduction of the number of posts threw many servants and employees of the old companies out of employment. This question engaged

the attention of the Council at its meeting of 1822. The Committee in London expressed extreme concern about the welfare of those discharged and of the numerous half breed children whose parents had died or had deserted them. "It will be prudent and economical," ran the instructions of the Committee to the Council of Rupert's Land, "to incur some expense in placing these people where they may maintain themselves and be civilized and instructed in religion." To meet the problem the company made grants of land upon a special form of tenure, which was really a lease for 1000 years at a peppercorn rent. There were, however, important stipulations upon which the lease depended. The tenant covenanted not to trade in fur or distil liquor or spirits, and he further covenanted to preserve peace, repel foreign aggression, repair roads and bridges and promote general education and religious instruction. Nor did the tenant have the right to sell or sublet his holding without the consent of the company. Though these were the terms of settlement, Sir George Simpson testified before the Parliamentary Committee in 1857 that none of the covenants except the prohibition in regard to fur, was ever rigidly enforced. It was, however, the presence of such restrictions that gave rise in the last years of the company's regime, to opposition to their Charter. It is no criticism of Simpson and his officials that such a system was unsuited to the conditions of the New World; that any attempt to revive the land system of the Norman and Angevin kings on the Plains of the North-West was foredoomed to failure. They attempted to reconcile two opposing policies,—the promotion of colonization and the maintenance of the fur trade. It can be said on behalf of the company that they did as well as could be done under the system and they left behind an honourable record of just and benevolent dealings with the native population and in support of missionaries and schools for their advancement. Sir George Simpson was subjected to a gruelling cross-examination at the British Parliamentary Inquiry in 1857, but on the whole he was able to make a good case for the company. We may conclude that it was not the ability alone of the young Scotch accountant, who had spent 37 years in the wilds of the North-West, that enabled him to fence so successfully with antagonists like Roebuck and Gladstone. The record of the Hudson's Bay Company and the manner in which they exercised their regal powers were also important factors in the case.

It was the policy of the company to have all their retired employees settle at Red River and to make no grants outside of that part of Rupert's Land. The reason given was that the settlers would be more easily afforded the means of education and religion. Already there was a Roman Catholic mission at Red River and an orphanage and Protestant school under the Rev. Mr. West. This may have been an extreme policy but it is no more so than the opposite policy of settling the North-West in scattered and thinly populated communities from the Red River to the Peace, and thus throwing a premature burden on the Government to provide

roads, railways and civil institutions, but such are the wasteful but popular methods of democracy. It will be seen, therefore, that outside the District of Assiniboia there was nothing but the fur trade, and this explains why settlement was so late beginning in Alberta.

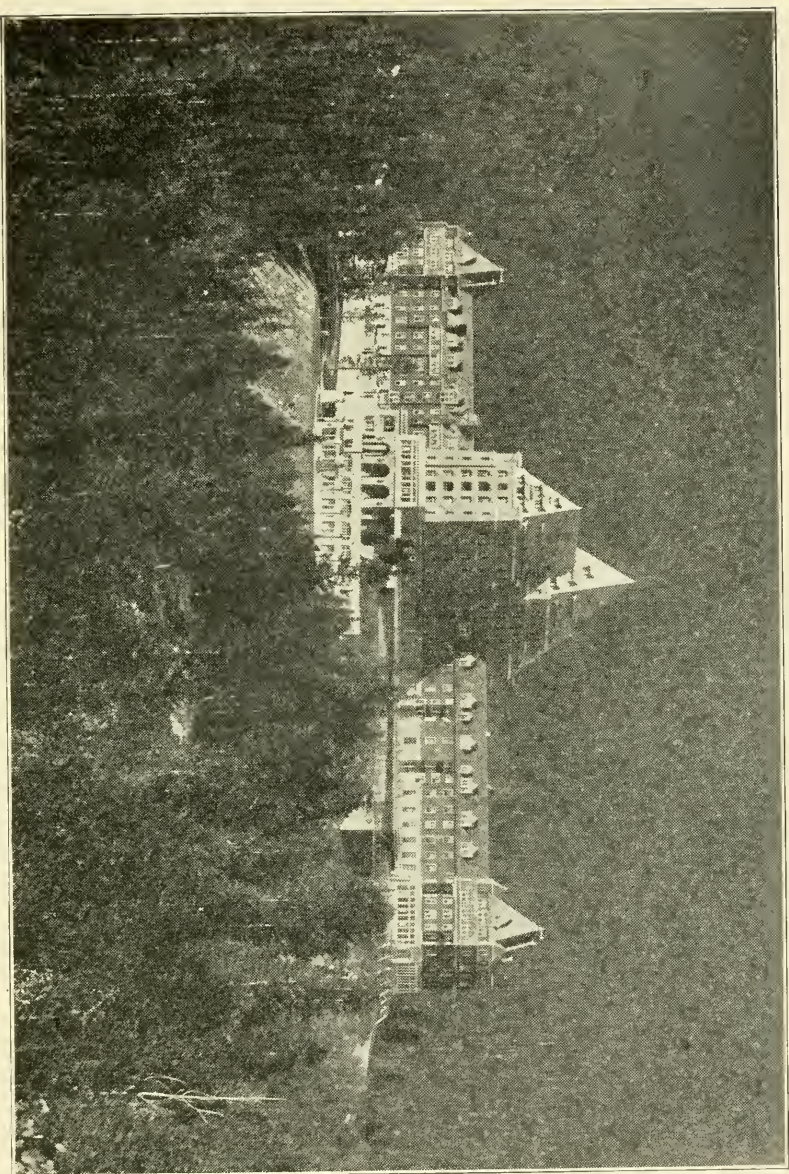
During this period the Province of Alberta was included in the Saskatchewan and Athabaska districts of the northern department. By 1830 the principal posts in the Saskatchewan District were Fort Edmonton and Fort Carlton. The reader will remember that Fort Edmonton, along with new Fort Augustus, had been abandoned in 1810. It was not until 1819 that the post was reëstablished as Fort Edmonton, which has remained the metropolis of the Saskatchewan Valley ever since and the strategic commercial centre of the Far West. By the arrangements of 1821 James Sutherland, who built the first post of this name, became Chief Factor. John Rowand was now in charge with twelve men, having succeeded C. F. Sutherland in 1825 and J. P. Pruden was Chief Factor at Carlton with eight men. Other posts in the district and the officers in charge were: Fort Pitt on the Saskatchewan, built in 1831, Peter Small, clerk; Fort Assiniboine on the Athabaska, built in 1825, Richard Grant, clerk; Rocky Mountain House on the Saskatchewan, Henry Fisher, clerk; Jasper's House on the Athabaska, Michael Clyne, postmaster; Lesser Slave Lake, George Linton, clerk. Edmonton was becoming an important point in the transportation system of the country. The company maintained a large number of horses and dogs at Fort Edmonton for the conveyance of goods by pack train and dog sleighs to Fort Assiniboine where suitable craft was held in readiness for transport to the mountains and the Columbia District through the Athabaska Pass. As many as 800 horses were kept at one time for this purpose. The horse guard for Fort Edmonton was situated a few miles northeast of the city at the point now known as the Horse Hills.

John Charles and Colin Campbell had charge of Athabaska. Simon McGillivray was at Great Slave Lake, but was now under orders to proceed to the Columbia District to coöperate with Chief Factor John McLoughlin. Chipewyan, under Chief Factor Charles; Dunvegan, under Chief Trader Campbell; Vermilion, under Paul Fraser, clerk, and Great Slave under George McDougall, clerk, were flourishing posts. The outfit for the district consisted of four boats, 29 men and 220 pieces of merchandise. Dunvegan was a very busy place, maintaining the reputation Harmon gave it in 1808. The gentlemen in charge were ordered by the Grand Council at Norway House to prepare for shipment to New Caledonia via Peace River in August of every year the following supplies: 650 dressed moose skins, 100 babiche snares and beaver nets, 2000 fathoms of pack cords and 500 kegs of grease. At Fort Simpson Chief Factor Edward Small was in command of the Mackenzie District with M. McPherson, C. Brisbois, John Bell and J. Hutchison as clerks at Forts Riviere au Liards, Norman, Good Hope and Halkett, respectively, assisted

by two or three men at each post. The annual outfit for the district consisted of about 300 pieces.

In 1832 we find a new post established near the 49th parallel of latitude called Piegan Post under Chief Trader J. E. Harriott to attract the Piegans and to prevent the American Indians from frequenting the Company's posts on the Saskatchewan. This post seems to have had but a temporary existence, and though Rocky Mountain House was temporarily abandoned, we find by the winter of 1835 it was flourishing, with an important officer in charge. Fort Pitt was also abandoned for a time on account of the danger of war parties of Crees and Blackfeet in that region. In order to meet Russian competition across the mountains, the company sent Chief Trader John Macleod in 1834 to take possession of Northern British Columbia and what is now the Yukon Territory and Alaska. He ascended the Liard River above Fort Halkett, crossed the mountains and reached Dease's Lake and what he called the Pelly River, but which was in reality the Stikine. Two years later J. Hutchison was directed to move Fort Halkett to Dease's Lake and establish a post 200 miles from the Height of Land. The expedition failed. In 1837 the Council accepted the spirited offer of Robert Campbell, a clerk stationed at Fort Simpson, to pursue the exploration work west of the mountains. With a half breed and two Indian lads, Campbell ascended the Liard, crossed the Height of Land and discovered that Macleod's Pelly River was the Stikine. He returned to Dease's Lake and passed the winter there (1838-39). In May, 1840, Campbell left Fort Halkett and ascended the Liard to Francis Lake (so named in honour of Lady Simpson) up Finlayson River and Lake, crossed the Divide and discovered the real Pelly River. In 1842 Fort Pelly Banks was built and Campbell established Fort Selkirk at the junction of the Pelly and the Lewes in 1848. Farther north the Hudson's Bay traders entered the country by the Porcupine River. In 1840 Chief Trader McPherson opened the post that bears his name on Peel's River. In 1842 John Bell went down the Porcupine a few miles. In 1846 while in charge of Fort McPherson he descended the river to its junction with the Yukon, where next year A. H. Murray established Fort Yukon which continued to be a Hudson's Bay post until the purchase of Alaska by the United States, from Russia. Campbell completed the exploration of the Pelly-Yukon water system in 1850. He descended the Pelly to Fort Selkirk, thence to Fort Yukon, up the Porcupine, crossed to Peel's River and up the Mackenzie to Fort Simpson again.

We have seen that one of the results of the opposition between the old companies was the rapid depletion of the beaver. The use of traps and castoreum by the Iroquois hunters imported by the North West Company about 1800, greatly reduced the number of beavers. After the Union the Hudson's Bay Company did its best to preserve these valuable fur bearing animals. The number taken in each district was restricted as nearly as possible to the number set at the Annual Meeting of the Council.



BANFF SPRINGS HOTEL

In 1830 the number in Saskatchewan district was limited to 5,500 and in the Athabaska district to 5,000. These were the two greatest fur bearing districts in the whole North-West. By 1840 it was necessary to further curtail the catch of beaver. The company issued instructions to discourage the taking of beaver. At some posts the number taken was reduced by half while at other posts the taking of beaver was entirely prohibited.

During the last years of Sir George Simpson, a new generation of factors, traders and clerks were rising to prominence in the fur trade. Already we have noticed that in 1837 Robert Campbell was fired with the exploring zeal of Alexander Mackenzie and David Thompson. Chief Factor John Anderson was now in command of the Mackenzie district and loyally held to the traditions of Simon McGillivray, William McGillivray and the Gentlemen Adventurers. He also had the courage and hardihood of the pathfinder, for we shall find him later leading an Expedition on behalf of the Hudson's Bay Company to search for relics of Franklin. Other men who entered the service about this time were William J. Christie, Richard Hardisty, William Sinclair, H. J. Moberly, Roderick McFarlane and James Allan Grahame, all of whom became prominent in the affairs of the company in Alberta. Chief Factor Christie was the son of Alexander Christie, twice governor of Assiniboia and builder of Fort Garry. He was educated in Scotland and became Chief Factor at Edmonton after John Rowand, holding the position until 1872 when he became Inspecting Chief Factor for the Saskatchewan and Athabaska posts. He was also one of the members of the first North-West Council. Richard Hardisty became Chief Factor at Edmonton in 1872 and later became the first Senator from Alberta.

Sir George Simpson died in 1860 and was succeeded by Governor Dallas, who continued in that position until the transfer of Rupert's Land to the Government of Canada. With Simpson passed the old Hudson's Bay Company. Under his successors the Company has emerged into a great modern trading corporation that has spread its activities over the whole empire of the Gentlemen Adventurers, meeting competition with the same resourcefulness and invincible organization that it bore against the Nor'Westers a century ago.

Before dealing with the events that led up to the transfer of the Hudson's Bay Territory to the Dominion of Canada, it will doubtless be interesting to the reader to learn something of the internal economy of a Hudson's Bay post during the latter days of the Company's regime. Vegetables and cereals were grown at almost every post in the Province. The store of provisions was distributed with great care to the officers and men according to fixed rules.

Chief Factor H. J. Moberly, in his "Reminiscences of a Hudson's Bay Company Factor," recently written, gives us the details of rationing the supplies at Lac la Biche in 1856, as follows:

"At the post the allowance of provisions for the winter was on the

following scale: To a chief factor, three hundred pounds of flour, three hundred and thirty-six pounds of sugar, eighteen pounds of black tea, nine pounds of green tea, forty-two pounds of raisins, sixty pounds of butter, thirty pounds of candles, three pounds of mustard, and sixteen gallons of port, sherry and brandy or shrub. These provisions were put in two gallon kegs, four of which were laced together and called a maccaron. Rice, pepper, pimento were added, with fifteen pounds of chocolate.

"A chief trader received half the quantity, and a chief clerk half as much as a chief trader.

"This was the winter allowance, but besides this the officer in charge of the brigade on the annual trip to York Factory, with the clerks who accompanied him, got a voyage allowance. The chief factor's portion was one maccaron of biscuit, ham, tea, sugar, chocolate, salted tongues, butter and flour. The clerks got half a maccaron and each man could take what he preferred of the four beverages.

"The officer in charge of the district also got an extra allowance of flour, hams and drinkables, which was called 'strangers' mess allowance', as he had to entertain many visitors. The best parts of the fresh meats were always reserved for the officers' mess, and the supply was ad libitum.

"The postmasters were old and deserving servants who were now exempted from boat work and almost every other hard work and were never placed in charge of important posts. They received wages of forty pounds sterling, with an allowance for the season of thirty-two pounds of sugar, three pounds of black tea, and one and a half of green, seven pounds of rice, half a pound of pepper and half a pound of pimento.

"The meat rations were weighed out each evening to the postmasters and servants of the prairie posts, each man receiving eight pounds of fresh meat, or two and a half pounds of pemmican or three pounds of dried meat.

"One whitefish was the allowance to each woman, half of a whitefish to each child, if the fish were obtainable, otherwise the woman received half a man's allowance of meat, the child one quarter. Train dogs got two fish, or four pounds of fresh meat each.

"A record of the provisions stocked, with their weight or quantities, was entered as they were received in the 'Provision Book,' in which also were entered the allowances as they were given out. A glance at this book, therefore, would show the officer in charge what amount of 'grub' he had on hand at any one moment.

"Each post had also to keep a diary of the weather, work done, annual departures, births, deaths, marriages and all other events.

"Many of these diaries have been lost or destroyed, but one by one they come to light. Many of them have been collected and sent to the London or to the Winnipeg headquarters of the company. They are intensely interesting and human documents, recording with meticulous care the local

events of the day and such bits of world news as reached the posts from time to time."

After the transfer of Rupert's Land to Canada and the reorganization of the Hudson's Bay Company, advances to Indians were discontinued, a practice followed since the beginning of the fur trade. The action was greatly resented by the Indians. No posts had been opened on the South Saskatchewan River since the abandonment of Bow River Fort and Chesterfield House in the late '30s. The nearest post to South Saskatchewan was Last Mountain, an outpost of Fort Qu'Appelle. The spread of the half breeds westward following the buffalo, a migration that steadily increased for many years, rendered necessary a post or two farther west, naturally on the Saskatchewan River. The proposed points were at Vermilion Hills and at the old site of Chesterfield House, the former for the Qu'Appelle, Crees and Stoneys, the latter for the Blackfeet. Before the Hudson's Bay Company could make up their minds to build these posts, the firm of I. G. Baker and other American traders from Fort Benton invaded Southern Alberta and established several forts: Whoop-Up, Stand-Off, and Fort Kipp. The I. G. Baker Company became the first great rival of the Hudson's Bay Company in Alberta, and continued so until the Hudson's Bay Company purchased the I. G. Baker posts in 1892. But an enumeration of the principal posts of the company in operation at the time of the transfer (1870) in the Province of Alberta and the District of Athabasca shows that in the North the Hudson's Bay traders occupied every strategic point for trading with the various Indian tribes. The list is as follows: Edmonton, Victoria, St. Paul, Battle River, Whitefish Lake, Lac la Biche, Chippewyan, Vermilion, Lac St. Anne, Lac la Nonne, St. Albert, Pigeon Lake, Old White Mud Fork, Salt River, Fond du Lac, St. John, Red River on the Peace, forks of the Athabasca River (Fort McMurray) and Fort Smith.

Opposition to the Hudson's Bay Company's rule slowly developed in the District of Assiniboia. The prohibition against dealing in furs created many agitators for free trade. Private importation of supplies was permitted and facilitated by the Governor of Assiniboia until the new traders were guilty of profiteering. The company then stepped in and by keeping a larger stock of goods and selling at cheaper rates, captured the business from the independent traders. This, of course, created a new grievance and the company was charged with operating a monopoly in merchandise as well as in fur. Though acting within the powers of the Charter many of the acts of the company appear harsh to the ordinary citizen and trader. The company sternly repressed trade in furs and searched private houses and stores for traces of the traffic. Private traders were arrested but public opinion in the colony was mainly opposed to such measures. The renewal of the company's license in 1838 served to increase the opposition to the big corporation and from this date onward the position of the Governor of Rupert's Land, particularly the Governor

of Assiniboia, was no sinecure. In 1847 a petition was presented to the Colonial Secretary on behalf of the people of Rupert's Land and in 1849 the British House of Commons passed an address to the Queen praying for an enquiry into the legality of the Hudson's Bay Company's claims under the Charter. The Company prepared a reply of conspicuous ability. The statement was approved by the law officers of the Crown who expressed the opinion that the only authoritative way to settle such an important question was a reference to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. The parties who presented the Petition above mentioned were requested to appear before the Privy Council in the case, but they declined the responsibility.

Soon a new antagonist entered the field. In 1857 the Canadian Government laid claim to a portion of the Hudson's Bay Territory lying west of the old Province of Canada and sent a despatch embodying this claim to the Colonial Secretary. The despatch was referred to the law officers of the Crown. The law officers gave an elaborate opinion in the course of which they stated: "The Charter could not be considered apart from its existence for nearly two centuries and nothing could be more unjust than to try this Charter as a thing of yesterday." They held that the Crown could not with justice question the validity of the Charter nor the Company's territorial ownership of the land granted to it, but subject to certain qualifications they thought that exclusive rights of government or monopoly of trade could not be insisted on by the Company as having been granted by the Crown, although it did possess limited powers to pass ordinances and exercise civil and criminal jurisdiction.

The period of the second license of twenty-one years had now but two years to run. The British Government, therefore, in view of the opposition to the Company in Canada and within the boundaries of Rupert's Land itself, referred the whole question to a select committee to consider the state of the British Possessions in North America, which were under the administration of the Hudson's Bay Company, over which they possessed a license to trade. Many notable witnesses were examined, among them Sir George Simpson, Lt. Col. Lefroy, Dr. John Rae, Sir John Richardson, Chief Justice Draper of Upper Canada, Bishop Anderson and the Rt. Hon. Edw. Ellice. Much evidence was taken. The members of the Parliamentary Committee comprised some of the ablest men in the House of Commons:—the Rt. Hon. Labouchere, Lord John Russell, Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Adderley, Mr. Roebuck, Lord Stanley. Canada sent Chief Justice Draper to watch the proceedings on behalf of Canada.

We cannot pass the encomiums of the report as others have done. Notwithstanding the brilliancy and the ability of the cross examiners of the Committee, their want of familiarity with the life, history and resources of the North-West enabled Simpson and Ellice to make out a very good case for the Company. On each side Simpson and Draper were the star witnesses. The report of the Committee was, of course, a foregone

conclusion. The monopoly of a Stuart king granted in 1670 could not pass muster in 1857 in a Parliament elected on Lord Grey's Reform Bill of 1832. The Committee reported against the renewal of the license and advised an equitable extinction of the Hudson's Bay Charter over Rupert's Land. It recognized the legitimate ambitions of Canada to extend her boundaries and annex the Red River and Saskatchewan districts, and advised the separation of Vancouver Island from the rule of the Company. In those regions of the Indian Territory and Rupert's Land where there was no prospect of settlement, the Committee, recognizing the fitness of the Company to govern such territories, declared it was desirable that they continue in the hands of the Hudson's Bay Company. The report is a splendid document and reflects from every paragraph the fine sense of justice, in balancing prescription with necessary reform, that distinguishes the deliberations of the Mother of Parliaments.

As a result of the Committee's report the license was not renewed in 1859 but its chartered rights were still intact and things were left in the air. The Canadian Government desired to acquire the regions specified in the Committee's report, but how was it to be done? Proposals and counter-proposals were made by the Imperial Government, by the Government of Canada and by the Hudson's Bay Company. Even powerful private interests bestirred themselves. A syndicate of Anglo-American capitalists wanted large tracts of the country in the Red River and Saskatchewan valleys for colonization purposes. Another syndicate offered to open up communication with the North-West by a canal from the Ottawa River to Lake Huron for a grant of 40,000,000 acres in the neighborhood of the Saskatchewan Valley. Such proposals were strongly opposed by the Canadian Government and a protest was lodged in 1866 on behalf of Canada with the Colonial Secretary against any scheme of private exploitation, stoutly maintaining at the same time that the Hudson's Bay Company had no right to dispose of the lands of the colony. The whole matter was set at rest by the British North America Act of 1867. By Section 146 of this Act the Queen was empowered to admit Rupert's Land and the North West Territory into Confederation by Order-in-Council upon the terms to be adopted in an address of the Parliament of Canada and submitted to the Queen. To remove all doubts the Parliament of Great Britain and Ireland passed an Act, July 31st, 1868, enabling the Queen to accept the surrender of the land, privileges and rights of the Hudson's Bay Company and transfer the same to the Dominion of Canada. Negotiations were immediately opened between the Canadian Government and the Hudson's Bay Company, with the British Government as mediator, and the deed of surrender was agreed upon to become effective July 15th, 1870.

CHAPTER VI.

FURTHER EXPLORATION AND TRAVEL.

Before we take up the history of the Province after the Canadian Government took over the North-West, there are some features and events of the Hudson's Bay days that could not be logically included in the last chapter dealing with the fur trade. From time to time we catch glimpses of the province from reports of travellers and explorers. We shall first deal with the Arctic Explorers, for although Alberta lies far south of the Arctic, the eyes of the people of this province are turned to the window of the north and feel that the history of that silent land is part of their own.

Hearne, as we have seen, reached the mouth of the Coppermine in 1771 and Mackenzie the mouth of his own river in 1789. The British Government was anxious to explore the country beyond these points and sent out Capt. John Franklin, R. N., in 1819, with instructions to explore the coast eastward from the mouth of the Coppermine River. He was accompanied by Dr. John Rae, surgeon in the Royal Navy, and Mr. George Back and Mr. Robert Hood, two Admiralty shipmen.

The party proceeded by the Hudson's Bay boat "Prince of Wales" to York Factory and thence by the usual route to the Saskatchewan as far as Fort Carlton. From here they crossed to the Beaver River and followed the old route of the voyageurs to Fort Chipewyan, reaching there in March, 1820, where they made final preparations for the journey overland to the mouth of the Coppermine River.

Franklin left old Fort Providence in August accompanied by W. F. Wentzel of the North West Company and proceeded to Fort Enterprise where he wintered 1820-1821. In June, 1821, he crossed the Height of Land and descended to the Coppermine and explored the Arctic Coast from this point eastward through Bathurst Inlet and Melville Sound to Point Turnagain. From here he travelled to the mouth of Hood River ascending the same to Wilberforce Falls where he abandoned his canoes and started overland to Fort Enterprise. The party suffered terrible privations; one of the guides, insane by hunger, shot poor Hood. They finally reached old Fort Providence on December 11th, reaching York Factory the following July, having travelled 5,550 miles. Franklin, Richardson and Back, with Lieut. E. N. Kendall, made a Second Polar Expedition in the years 1825-26-27. On this expedition they built a hut at the west end of Great Bear Lake which they used as a base for their Arctic Explorations. This is known as Fort Franklin. The object of the

expedition was to explore the Coast eastward from the mouth of the Mackenzie River to the mouth of the Coppermine and westward as far as possible. The party proceeded by the usual canoe route of the fur traders via Cumberland House, Frog Portage to Fort Chipewyan and down by the waterway to Fort Franklin. In June, 1826, the party descended the Mackenzie River to Point Separation, so called on the maps because here the party divided,—Franklin and Back undertaking to survey the west Coast, while Richardson and Kendall undertook to survey the east Coast. Enlightened by his experience on the former expedition, Franklin provided himself with two stout boats, the "Lion" and "Reliance" while Richardson was similarly equipped with the "Dolphin" and "Union." Franklin explored the Coast to Beachey, a distance of 374 miles, while Richardson reached the mouth of the Coppermine River, a distance of nearly 1,000 miles, and named the Strait which separates Wollaston Land from the mainland,—Dolphin and Union Strait, after the names of his trusty boats. In August he ascended the Coppermine River, where he abandoned his boats and struck overland to Great Bear Lake and reached Fort Franklin September 1st. By the end of September he was joined by Franklin again.

In 1833 Captain Back again returned to the North to seek for Sir John Ross, whose party was reported lost. He established his headquarters at the extreme eastern end of Great Slave Lake, where he built a Fort called Fort Reliance. Here he spent the winter of 1833. During the winter he learned that Ross' party was safe in England. Nevertheless he resolved to continue his expedition. The expedition was under the auspices of the Arctic Society of the Hudson's Bay Company. The British Government contributed 2,000 pounds sterling, the friends of Sir John Ross 3,000 pounds sterling, and the Hudson's Bay Company undertook to furnish supplies and canoes and send two of their most experienced northern traders, James Stuart and Alexander R. Macleod to assist the expedition. Captain Back left Fort Reliance in June, 1834, and reached the mouth of Great Fish River July 29th. He explored the sea coast to Point Ogle, returning by the same route and reaching Fort Reliance September 27th, 1834. At Point Ogle he discovered driftwood which he judged must have come from the mouth of the Mackenzie River and hence concluded that a current swept the Arctic shore from the west towards the east.

The next Expedition was fitted out by the Hudson's Bay Company. By the Minutes of 1836 of the Council of Rupert's Land, Chief Factor Peter Warren Dease and Mr. Thomas Simpson, with a party of twelve men, were instructed to carry out additional Arctic exploration. This was one of the most successful expeditions of the series. From Fort Chipewyan Simpson proceeded to the mouth of the Mackenzie, which he reached July 9th, 1837, and explored the west coast beyond the point reached by Franklin a few years before. Returning to Great Bear Lake



GALT PARK AND CITY OF LETHBRIDGE



MAIN STREET, LETHBRIDGE

he built Fort Confidence on the extreme eastern end and wintered here 1837-38. In June he crossed over to the Coppermine and descended to its mouth. Ice conditions prevented him from using boats, so he travelled along the coast on foot with seven men carrying canvas canoes, arms, tents and provisions and succeeded in reaching Cape Alexander, 100 miles east of Cape Turnagain. He returned to Fort Confidence and spent the winter. In the summer of 1839 the two explorers set out again and reached Cape Alexander July 26th. From this point they explored the Coast eastward around Adelaide Peninsula to Point Ogle, which they reached August 13th, the point reached by Captain Back in 1834. From Point Ogle they proceeded to Montreal Island, where they found a cache left by Back. They followed the coast to the mouth of the Castor and Pollux River, which they reached August 20th. Here they turned homeward following the south shore of King William Land and Victoria Land, reaching the mouth of the Coppermine River again on September 16th, 1839, and eight days later were back at Fort Confidence. They appropriately named the straits separating Victoria Land and King William Land from the mainland, Dease and Simpson straits, respectively. They thus established the existence of a water channel separating the Great Arctic Island from the rest of Canada.

The tragic fate of Sir John Franklin's Third Expedition led to another overland expedition led by Sir John Richardson and Dr. Rae to determine Franklin's fate. Dr. Rae was an officer in the service of the Hudson's Bay Company, and had already spent a winter in Arctic exploration. The party proceeded by the usual fur traders' route to Fort Chipewyan, reaching this post July 11th, 1848, and the mouth of the Mackenzie August 3rd. They were unable to make any successful exploration that summer, ice conditions preventing them from crossing Dolphin and Union Strait to Wollaston Land. They spent the winter of 1848-49 at Fort Confidence. In June, 1849, Rae set out for the coast and after unusual difficulties reached the sea July 14th. After many vain endeavors to cross to Wollaston Land, he was forced to return to Fort Confidence.

Two years later Dr. Rae, under instructions from the Hudson's Bay Company, returned to the north and explored Wollaston Land and Victoria Land. Determined to confirm the ill-fated end of Franklin's Expedition, he returned again in 1853. In the spring of 1854 he explored the west coast of Boothia. The Esquimaux told him that in the spring of 1850 they had seen about forty white men with a boat along the south coast of King William Land. They learned from these men that they were on their way to the mainland to reach the reindeer. The Esquimaux further informed him that later in the same spring they found the bodies of about thirty of the white men on the mainland and five more on the island near the coast. The Esquimaux had pieces of silver bearing the Franklin crest and other articles which proved the tragic end of the Franklin Expedition.

The following year Chief Factor James Anderson of the Mackenzie River District descended Back's River and secured from the Esquimaux many relics of the Franklin Expedition. Satisfied by this confirmatory evidence, the Admiralty awarded to Dr. Rae and his companions, 10,000 pounds offered for information of the fate of the Expedition.

We now turn to exploration and travel within the Province. Mention has been made of Franchere and his trip down the Athabaska in 1814. Franchere was a young Canadian from Montreal, who joined the Astor Expedition which sailed in the "Tonquin" in 1810 from New York, and founded Fort Astoria near the mouth of the Columbia River in May, 1811, two months before David Thompson reached the mouth of this river. He spent over three years in the Columbia Department and has left us a useful account of the period in his "Narrative of a Voyager to the North West Coast of America in 1811-1812 and 1813" or "The First American Settlement on the Pacific."

After Astoria was purchased from the Pacific Fur Company by the North West Company in October, 1813, Franchere and several partners of the Astor Expedition decided to return to Canada by the best route over the Rocky Mountains instead of by Cape Horn.

They left Astoria or Fort George (as this post was called after the purchase by the North West Company) with the Spring Brigade, April 1814, which included among others, McDonald of Garth, John G. McTavish, famous North West partners; John Clarke and Donald Mackenzie of the Pacific Fur Company, as well as several Hawaiians, Chinooks, Canadian voyagers and clerks, loaded in ten canoes—in all 90 persons.

Proceeding up the Columbia they reached Boat Encampment at the mouth of Canoe River. They crossed the Rockies by the Athabaska Pass, passing McGillivray's Rock and the Governor's Punch Bowl, the latter a tiny lake on the divide, 400 yards around, formed in the cup of the rocks and so named because it was the custom of the North West Company to treat the voyageurs to a bowl of punch when a nabob of the fur trade passed this point. Buffaloes were observed far up the Athabaska beyond the Miette. A verdant plain along the river was then, as now, known as Buffalo Prairie (Prairie de La Vache).

The party divided at the Pembina River, McDonald and Mackenzie crossing over to Edmonton, while Franchere with others descended the Athabaska to the La Biche River, which he ascended to Lac La Biche, or as he called it "Red Deer Lake." Here he met two young girls gathering ducks' and gulls' eggs. They were the daughters of the famous free trader often mentioned in Henry's Journals, Antoine Desjarlais, a French Canadian from Vercheres, Quebec. He was very glad to meet Franchere, for he had two letters two years old from his sister in Quebec. As he could not read, this was the first opportunity he had to know their contents.

Crossing from Lac La Biche, they descended the Beaver River for a considerable distance, and crossed overland to Fort Vermilion on the Saskatchewan, which they reached at sundown, June 10th. Mr. Hallet, in charge of the post for the Hudson's Bay Company, brought out two quarters of buffalo meat to give them their supper, a splendid and typical example of the hospitality of the West. The population of Vermilion at this time was some 90 persons, men, women and children. Both the North West and Hudson's Bay posts were in operation as in Henry's time, five or six years before.

Alexander Ross crossed the Province with Governor Simpson in 1825 from the Columbia via the Athabaska Pass and Athabaska River. Ross has left an instructive narrative of this trip in his "Fur Hunters of the Far West." By 1825 a new post had been built on the Athabaska—Fort Assiniboine. Ross says this was the third establishment of the Hudson's Bay Company on this river. The first of course would be Henry's House, or Old Fort, opposite the mouth of the Miette River, already mentioned. Ross calls this post Rocky Mountain House, and describes it as "a neat little group of wood huts suited to the climate of the country, rendered comfortable and filled with cheerful, happy inmates." It was in charge of Joseph Felix LaRocque. The second post was Jasper's House, which Ross says "was still smaller and of less importance than the first," and in charge of Michael Klyne. The reader should note that Ross applies the term Rocky Mountain House to the first House, whereas Franchere and Ross Cox described Jasper House by this general name. We have now met with four Rocky Mountain Houses. One on the North Saskatchewan, two on the Athabaska, one on the Peace River at Hudson's Hope. A fifth was built by John Thompson in 1800 on the Mackenzie River, a few miles below Fort Simpson, in sight of the Rocky Mountains.

Governor Simpson and Ross left the Athabaska at Fort Astoria and crossed to Fort Edmonton, or Fort des Prairies, as it was often called in those days. Chief Factor John Rowand was in charge. They continued their journey down the Saskatchewan with the York Factory Brigade, passing Carlton House, under Chief Factor Stewart, Cumberland House under James Leith, where they met Sir John Franklin and Dr. Richardson bound for the Arctic regions. The reader will note here how rapidly the number of posts on the Saskatchewan decreased after the amalgamation of the rival companies.

The first scientific work of determining the flora and fauna of the Province was done in 1825, by Thomas Drummond, the assistant naturalist of Sir John Franklin's second expedition. Drummond ascended the Saskatchewan River to the Rocky Mountains, spent the summer of 1826 in what is now Jasper Park, and returned in the fall of that year to Edmonton. The following spring he travelled down the Saskatchewan Valley gathering specimens of plants and animals, which were afterwards described and classified by Sir John Richardson and Sir William Hooker.

David Douglas, whose name is perpetuated by the noble tree that bears his name, the Douglas Fir, crossed by the Athabaska Pass from British Columbia to Alberta in the spring of 1827, gathering specimens of plants for the Royal Horticultural Society of Great Britain. He named two mountains, one on each side of the Pass, Brown and Hooker, after the famous scientists who bear these names. He reached Jasper House on May 4th, and travelled eastward with the York Factory Brigade, in charge of Edward Ermatering.

Sir George Simpson was a great traveller, and crossed the Province several times. Of two of his journeys we have extended accounts, from which we glean considerable information of the country and people. Chief Factor Archibald Macdonald's Journal of the canoe voyage made by Sir George in 1828 across Alberta, via the Athabaska and Peace rivers, presents a new picture of the Peace River compared with the conditions in Thompson's time. Most of the posts were in a ruinous state, and small houses and posts not mentioned before were observed, namely: McTavish's House below the Vermilion Falls. (Mountain or Grand Falls as they were known to the voyageurs); above the Falls, English House, built by Halere; Colville's House, built below where Boyer's River enters the Peace. Farther up, above Vermilion, remnants of Colin Campbell's House, Robertson and Clarke's, St. Mary's, the latter near the mouth of the Smoky River.

Vermilion and Dunvegan were the only Posts occupied at this time. Dunvegan had been lately reestablished, having been abandoned in 1824 on account of the hostility of the Beaver Indians following the massacre of those in charge of St. John's Fort in the fall of 1823. Pine Fort stood a short distance below the junction of the Pine River with the Peace. Close by, on the same side of the River, was Mr. Yale's house. The old Mountain House was still in existence on the south side of the river at Hudson's Hope.

After 1840 the lure of the West attracted several noted travellers, who spent some time in Alberta and the desire of the authorities in Canada and Great Britain led to the despatch of important exploring expeditions which, in the course of their work, operated within the province. Sir George Simpson crossed the province again in 1841. Leaving Fort Garry July 3rd, 1841, with Chief Factor Rowand of the Saskatchewan District, the Governor travelled overland to Edmonton via Fort Carlton and Fort Pitt, reaching Edmonton House July 24th. His Journal on this trip indicates the great fear travellers had in those days in passing through the country of the Blackfeet, especially where it bordered on the territory of the Crees around Fort Pitt and the lower valley of the Battle River. At Edmonton he was received with the firing of guns by native chiefs of the Blackfeet, Piegan, Sarcee and Blood Indians, dressed in their fine clothes and decorated with scalp locks. "They implored me," says Sir George, "to grant their horses might always be swift, that the

buffalo might instantly abound and that their wives might live long and look young."

Accompanied by a guide named Peechee, Chief of the Mountain Crees, he set out from Edmonton, passed Gull Lake, crossed the Blind Man and Red Deer rivers and thence through the foothills to the Bow River, which he ascended to opposite Hole in the Wall Mountain. Here he turned up the Pass that bears his name and crossed the summit into British Columbia.

In 1843 Sir J. H. Lefroy, of the British Magnetic Survey, descended the Clearwater and Athabaska Rivers. He spent from October 16th of that year to February 29th, 1844, at Chipewyan taking magnetical and meteorological observations every hour of the twenty-four hours of each day. In the spring he went down the Slave River and the Mackenzie River as far as Fort Simpson, where he remained during the months of April and May. Retracing this route as far as the mouth of the Peace River, he ascended the Peace to Dunvegan. Leaving the river here, he travelled eastward to Lesser Slave Lake and thence to Edmonton.

Paul Kane, the first Canadian artist to win enduring fame, visited Alberta in 1846 and 1847 in his trip across the Continent to secure sketches and drawings of the Indians and the scenery of the West. His canvases, which are preserved in the Royal Ontario Museum, constitute the best existing record of the dress, manners and customs of the Red Men of the West before it was invaded by the white settler. He makes many observations interesting to Albertans today. On his way from Edmonton to Fort Assiniboine he sketched a group of buffalo resting beside the Sturgeon River in the vicinity of St. Albert. On the way westward from Edmonton he was accompanied by Colin Fraser, in charge of a post in the mountains, and the famous Highland piper brought to the North-West by George Simpson and who accompanied the Governor in his famous overland journey of 1828. On his return journey from British Columbia he remained at Edmonton and describes the Christmas festivities of Alberta's capital three-quarters of a century ago. The population at the Fort was 130; 800 cords of wood were burned that winter. Coal from the river bank was used only in the blacksmith's forge, on account of the want of proper iron grates for the stoves. Over 700 horses were kept at the Fort for hunting and packing and one horsekeeper sufficed to look after this immense band. Thousands of buffalo roamed the district close to the Fort. One of his most famous sketches which he used for the frontispiece of his book, "The Wanderings of an Artist," was an Edmonton Cree girl described by the poetic name of Cun-ne-wa-bum, "The one who looks at the stars."

The fact that the Hudson's Bay license was to expire in 1859 actuated the Canadian and British Governments to acquire definite information regarding the natural resources of the vast area of Rupert's Land and the feasibility of communication from Canada to the Red River and from the Great Plains through the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Ocean.

Strange as it may seem today, older Canada and the rest of the Empire tardily realised that the prairies between the Red River and the Rocky Mountains were different in soil, rainfall and other essential characteristics of a desirable agricultural region, from the great American desert south of the International Boundary. Canada did not actually discover the fertile belt of the North-West until 1860. We are indebted to two Expeditions for this gratifying vindication of the resources of the North-West,—one under Capt. John Palliser, under the auspices of the British Government, and the other under Messrs. S. J. Dawson and Henry Youle Hind, under the auspices of the Canadian Government. The Canadian Expedition confined its activities to the country between Lake Superior and the Red River, and westward to include the area now included in the Provinces of Manitoba and Saskatchewan. The Expedition has little direct interest to the people of Alberta except that it was the beginning of the idea to construct an All-Canadian route across British North America,—an idea that has materialized in the Confederation of all portions of British North America and the three great trans-continental railway systems that exist today.

Palliser's expedition is of the greatest interest to the people of Alberta as a great deal of the exploratory work was done in the region now included in the province and in the mountains towards British Columbia. Assisting Captain Palliser were Dr. James Hector, Capt. R. Blackiston, R. A., M. Bourgeau, botanist, and J. W. Sullivan, secretary. The territory examined and mapped out ranged from Lake Superior to Okanagan Lake in British Columbia and within Alberta from the International Boundary to the watershed of the Arctic Ocean. The first season was devoted to the region between Lake Superior and the Elbow of the South Saskatchewan from the 49th parallel to Fort Carlton, where the Expedition wintered 1857-58. The second season was devoted to an examination of the country between the north and south branches of the Saskatchewan River, to the mountains and to the discovery of passes therein. The second winter was spent at Edmonton. From here Dr. Hector made four trips. The first was a ten-day trip to Snake Hills on the north Saskatchewan, about 100 miles below Edmonton. In November and December, 1858, he examined the country in the vicinity of the Red Deer River through the foothills to old Bow Fort. In January and February, 1859, he went to Jasper's House via Fort Assiniboine. Accompanied by Mr. Moberley, the gentleman in charge of the post, he journeyed five days up the Athabaska River into Athabaska Pass. Want of food compelled him to return to Jasper's House. From here he returned to Edmonton by Macleod River and Lac Ste. Anne. At the end of March he went down to Fort Pitt on the crust of the snow, returning when the snow went away to study the soil. Captain Palliser during the same winter made the trip to the Beaver Hills and another up the Saskatchewan to Rocky Mountain House.

The third season commenced in May with a long journey from Edmonton via Buffalo Lake and Red Deer Forks into the Cypress Hills. On the way Palliser met several camps of the Blackfeet, who complained that the Hudson's Bay Company charged them more for their supplies than was charged the Crees. Consequently they were beginning to trade with the Americans at Fort Benton. Leaving the Cypress Hills in August, 1859, the party explored westward. Soon the party divided, Palliser proceeding nearly along the 49th parallel to Chief Mountain and crossed the Rockies by the Kootenay Pass. Hector turned northwestward and crossed the Belly River where it joins the Bow. He continued up the Bow until he came to the site of old Bow Fort, meeting many Piegans and Mountain Assiniboines, living on elk and grizzly bears, turnips and potatoes grown at the Bow Fort mission. Following the valley of the Bow he reached Castle Mountain opposite Vermilion Pass. Here he turned northwest, keeping on the east side of the watershed, passing by the Pipestone Pass to the north Saskatchewan River. Turning southwest he followed up the Saskatchewan, crossing the mountains by Howse Pass in the path of Thompson and descended the Blaeberry River to the Columbia.

The object of the expedition was to examine into the possibilities of settlement and to "ascertain whether any practicable pass or passes available for horses, existed across the Rocky Mountains within British territory and south of that known to exist between Mount Brown and Mount Hooker, known as the Boat Encampment Pass." The report to the British Government was elaborate and eloquent of the natural wealth of the country. Palliser explored the Kootenay and Kananaskis passes, Hector the Vermilion and Kicking Horse passes. They found the various passes available for horses. Notwithstanding these discoveries, Palliser reported against the settlement of the country and the construction of a railway. After stating that his Expedition had made connection between the prairies and British Columbia without passing through the United States Territory, he added, "Still the knowledge of the country on the whole would never lead me to advise a line of communication from Canada across the Continent to the Pacific, exclusively through British Territory. The time has forever gone for effecting such an object."

Palliser was followed two years later by Lord Milton and Dr. Cheadle, who were sent out by the Royal Geographical Society to find the most direct route through British Territory to the gold region of Caribou and to explore the unknown country at the source of the North Thompson River. All the important passes from the South Kootenay to the Athabaska had now been discovered by Palliser's and previous expeditions. Where the Athabaska turns south, a little west of the present Jasper Station, it is joined by the Miette from the west. This river leads to the Yellowhead Pass, one of the lowest in the mountains. Through this pass Lord Milton's party travelled in 1863 and reported that the most practicable route from the fertile belt of the Saskatchewan to the gold regions

of British Columbia was by the Leather or Yellowhead Pass and along the North Thompson River, the present route of the Canadian National Railway.

The party wintered 1862-63 about 80 miles northwest of Fort Carlton at White Fish Lake, where they built a hut and lived comfortably until spring. Their horses had been turned loose in the fall and rounded up when the snow went away. "Although very thin when the snow began to fall, they were now perfect balls of fat and as wild and full of spirit as if fed on corn," says Lord Milton in his fascinating story of the Expedition, "The North West Passage by Land." There was no settlement between Fort Carlton and Edmonton except a post at Fort Pitt and Victoria. St. Albert and Lac Ste. Anne were flourishing settlements though grizzly bears were near enough to kill the horses at St. Albert. Colin Fraser, Simpson's piper, was now in charge of Lac Ste. Anne. On the 5th day after leaving Jasper House, the party was surprised to come upon a stream flowing westward. Unconsciously they had passed the summit, the ascent had been so imperceptible. In their passage through the mountains, Milton and Cheadle overtook a party of emigrants on their way to the Cariboo Mines and other parts of British Columbia. The party was composed of citizens of Ontario and Quebec who had assembled at Fort Garry—136 in all. They had travelled to Edmonton by the Carlton Trail, taking the trail on the south side of the North Saskatchewan River from Fort Pitt to Edmonton. This party was known as "The Argonauts of 1862." Their guide from Edmonton to the Yellowhead Pass and Tete Jaune Cache was André Cardinal, the famous half breed guide of the time. The Argonauts were the third party of actual settlers known to have crossed the plains up to this time to settle west of the Rocky Mountains. The first was a party of twenty-three families in 1841, mentioned by Sir George Simpson, and the second, the Sinclair Party in 1854, comprising sixty-five persons, after whom the Sinclair Pass on the Banff-Windermere Road is named.

Ten years later, notwithstanding Palliser's report, Government engineers were making the preliminary survey of the C. P. R. through the Yellowhead Pass. In 1871 British Columbia entered Confederation. One of the terms of the union was the construction of a railway joining the Pacific province with Eastern Canada. Sandford Fleming, the Chief Engineer of the Canadian Government, crossed the plains in 1872 from Winnipeg by the trail of Simpson, Kane, Milton and Cheadle, namely, Portage La Prairie, Fort Ellice, Touchwood Hills, Fort Carlton, Fort Pitt, Victoria, Edmonton, Lac Ste. Anne, Jasper House. At Edmonton he despatched Charles Horetzky and John Macoun to examine the country through the Peace River Valley and the Pine Pass. By the end of 1872 every pass in the Rocky Mountains had been traversed and explored by white men. The pioneer work of Mackenzie and Thompson was finished, and a new era was breaking over the Great Lone Land.

CHAPTER VII.

POLITICAL HISTORY OF THE NORTH WEST TERRITORIES AND ALBERTA FROM 1867-1905.

The confederation of the provinces of British North America, Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, was proclaimed on July 1, 1867. In the B. N. A. Act setting forth the terms of confederation, provision was made for the admission of Prince Edward Island, Rupert's Land, the North Western Territories, British Columbia and Vancouver Island into the union, upon addresses from the Houses of Parliament of Canada on such terms and conditions in each case as should be in the addresses expressed.

On December 16, 1867, addresses were passed in the Senate and House of Commons of Canada praying for the union of Rupert's Land and the North Western Territories with the Dominion of Canada.

In 1868 the British Parliament passed the Rupert's Land Act enabling the Dominion of Canada to accept the surrender of the territory in question together with all the territorial and other rights conveyed by the original charter of Charles II to the Hudson's Bay Company in 1670. Accordingly, on October 1, 1868, Sir Geo. Cartier and Hon. William McDougall were appointed by the Dominion Government to proceed to London and arrange terms for the acquisition by Canada of Rupert's Land and the North Western Territory from the Hudson's Bay Company. A memorandum of agreement signed by Sir Stafford Northcote on behalf of the company, and by the Canadian delegates on behalf of the government of Canada was arrived at, submitted to the Canadian Government on May 8, 1869, and approved by Order in Council on May 14th following. The principal terms of surrender were as follows:

(1) The Government of Canada paid 300,000 pounds sterling at the time of the transfer to the Hudson's Bay Company.

(2) The Company retained all its posts then possessed and occupied and within twelve months from the date of the surrender were allowed to select a block of land adjoining each of their posts, the total of which was not to exceed 50,000 acres. The area actually selected and agreed to by the Government of Canada was 45,160 acres.

(3) The company was allowed fifty years from the date of the surrender to select one-twentieth of the surveyed land in the Fertile Belt. The selections in any township were to be made within ten years from the date of survey thereof. The Fertile Belt was designated as that portion of the

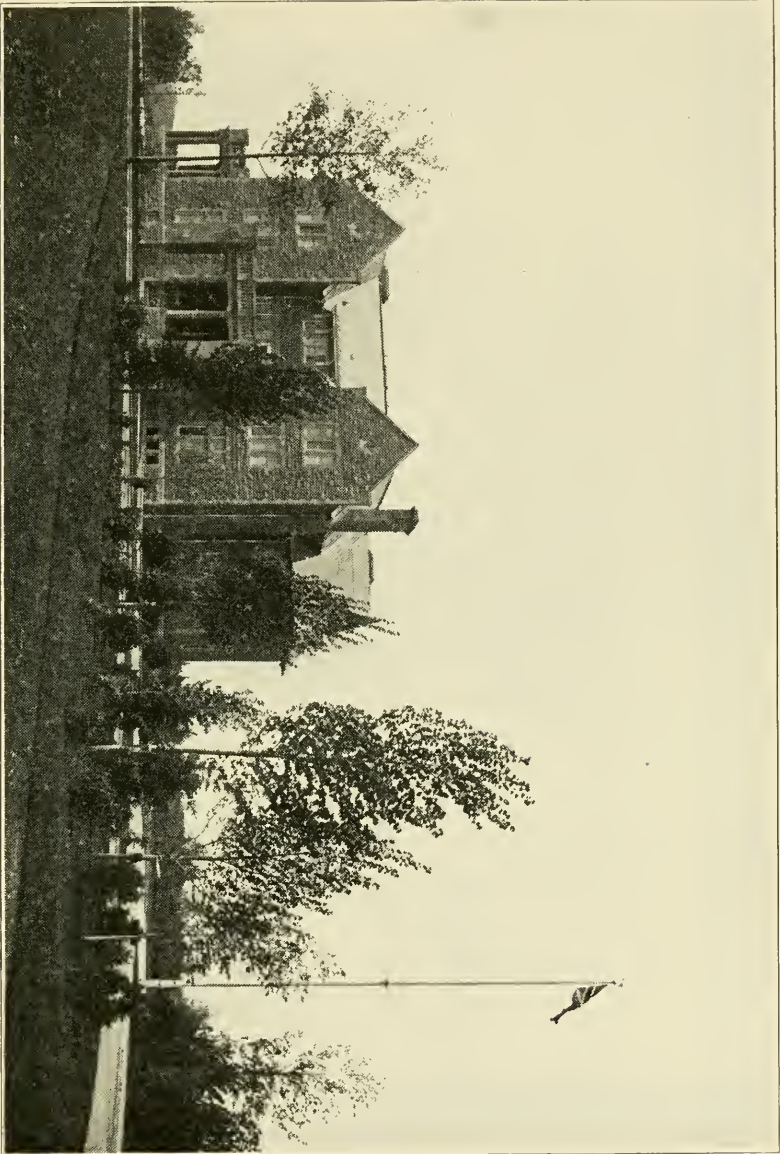
Territories south of the North Saskatchewan River and east of Lake of the Woods and Lake Winnipeg.

The surrender and the agreement relating to it was ordered by the Privy Council of Great Britain to go into effect on July 15, 1870, and in that month the last meeting of the officers of the Hudson's Bay Company as governors and administrators of the North West Territories was held at Norway House.

To provide for the change of authority, the government of Canada, anticipating the surrender, passed an Act providing for the temporary government of the North West Territories (32-33 Vict. Cap. 3) in 1869, by a council appointed by the Governor in Council. Unfortunately the establishment of Canadian authority was attended with the serious disturbances that led to the Riel Rebellion of 1869-70, the result of which was the passing of the Manitoba Act and the institution of the first representative government in Western Canada. The government of that portion of the North West Territories not included in the Province of Manitoba was provided for by continuing the act of 1869, and by section 35 of the Manitoba Act, whereby the Lieutenant Governor of Manitoba became also the Lieutenant Governor of the North West Territories. The following year the Parliament of Canada passed an Act making further provision for the government of the North West Territories, authorizing the appointment of a council not exceeding fifteen and not less than seven to aid the Lieutenant Governor. This Council is known as the North West Council.

The first Lieutenant Governor of the North West Territories was Hon. A. G. Archibald. He arrived in Winnipeg September 2, 1870, a few days after Riel had fled from the scene of his brief, rebellious dictatorship. One of the first acts of Lieutenant Governor Archibald was to commission Captain W. F. Butler, a famous soldier and traveller, to proceed to the plains of Alberta to report on the condition of the country, with a view toward enacting proper ordinances for the government of that new part of the Dominion of Canada, and to ascertain the extent of the ravages of the terrible epidemic of smallpox that was then raging among the Crees and Blackfeet tribes of Alberta. To cope with the plague, a Board of Health was formed, the first form of local government organization to be established in this Province. Its members were men remembered by all Westerners with esteem and affection: Rev. George McDougall; Rev. Father Leduc; Rev. Father André; Richard Hardisty, Chief Factor; Rev. Father Lacombe; Bishop Grandin of St. Albert; Bishop Faraud, Lac la Biche; Rev. Henry Steinhauer; Rev. Peter Campbell; Rev. John McDougall; John Bunn.

In January, 1873, the first North West Council was gazetted, the following being the members thereof: Hon. Donald A. Smith, Hon. A. Girard, Hon. Henry J. Clarke, Hon. Pascal Breland, Hon. Alfred Boyd, John Schultz, Joseph Dubuc, Andrew G. Bannatyne, Wm. Fraser, Robert Hamilton and Wm. J. Christie.



GOVERNMENT HOUSE, EDMONTON

The first meeting took place on March 8th. By an Act of 1873 the number of the Council was increased to twenty-one and in December of the same year five additional members were added to the Council, viz., Hon. James McKay, Hon. Jos. Royal, Pierre Delorme, W. R. Brown and W. N. Kennedy.

In 1875 the Parliament of Canada passed the North West Territories' Act (C. S. 1875, Cap. 49) which has been called the Constitutional Act of the Territories. From that period the North West Territories have enjoyed independent government and have risen from a state of semi-feudalism to almost complete provincial autonomy. The Constitution relating to government and legislation, the election of members to the North West Council or Legislative Assembly, and the administration of justice was set forth in this Act, and the law relating to descent of real estate, wills, rights of married women, registration of deeds, intoxicants, and other matters were also provided for. The legislative and executive authority was vested in the North West Council composed of five members appointed by the Governor in Council, and other members elected by the people in certain districts. Communities with a white population of 1000 persons within an area of 1000 square miles were constituted electoral districts and given the right to elect a representative to the Council. A measure of local government was conferred upon each electoral district. The Lieutenant Governor and North West Council were empowered to pass ordinances to erect each electoral district into a municipal corporation with rights to impose taxes for municipal purposes and to pass by-laws.

The North West Council as constituted by the North West Territories' Act, which was consolidated in 1880, and again in 1886, continued until 1888 when the system of having appointed members was abolished and the Council was superseded by an assembly elected every three years. The first legislative assembly consisted of twenty-two members and three legal experts who retained their seats during the term of the legislative assembly, took part in debates but were not entitled to vote.

The North West Territories' Act of 1875 was proclaimed on October 7, 1876, and Hon. David Laird was appointed the first Lieutenant Governor of the North West Territories. He proceeded at once to Livingstone (Swan River), where the capital of the Territories was temporarily located awaiting the completion of the government buildings at Battleford. The first session of the Council was held at Swan River March 8 to March 22, 1877. Ordinances relating to administration of justice, protection of buffalo, prevention of forest and prairie fires, ferries, roads, infectious diseases, and masters and servants—in all, twelve bills—were passed and sent to Ottawa for confirmation by the Federal Government. The members of the First Council were: Hon. David Laird, Lieutenant Governor; Matthew Ryan, Lieutenant Colonel Hugh Richardson, stipendiary magistrates as ex-officio members of the Council; Lt. Col. James F. Macleod, C. M. G.,

Commissioner of the N. W. M. P., appointed; A. E. Forget, Clerk of the Council.

For the administration of justice the Federal Government erected courts of civil and criminal jurisdiction, appointed a sheriff (Molineaux St. John) and two stipendiary magistrates. The Lieutenant Governor, subject to the Orders of the Governor in Council, had control of the Mounted Police force and the appointment of justices of the peace.

The second session opened at Battleford July 10, 1878, with an additional member, Pascal Breland, appointed. Increased powers had been conferred upon the Council respecting prisons, marriage, property and civil rights, and the formation of municipalities for purposes of local taxation. The buffalo ordinance was repealed and from that time the buffalo were doomed. Indian dogs were so numerous in the country that the citizens of Victoria petitioned the Council for protection for their calves and pigs. The citizens of St. Laurent petitioned for assistance to procure a school teacher. As the Council of the Territories had no power to impose direct taxation except in electoral districts, the Council referred the matter to the Federal Government. The Council was instructed by the Federal Government that the constitutional objection of want of representation could be met by raising a fund for school corporations and giving them the right to impose the rate. The constitutional objection of want of representation, which would apply in the case of taxation by the Council, would not be applicable to school corporations, who would merely tax themselves. The same question arose in the following session of 1879. The Federal Government was asked to amend the North West Territories' Act enabling the North West Council to pass an ordinance empowering the people of any settlement with a sufficient number of children, to form a school district and assess themselves toward its support.

The menacing attitude of some of the Indian tribes led the authorities to take steps for the organization of volunteer militia by Lt. Col. Osborne Smith, D. O. C. of the Winnipeg Military District. Companies were formed at Battleford (Captain Scott), St. Laurent (Capt. Owen E. Hughes), Prince Albert, two companies of horse (Captains Moore and Young), and one company of infantry (Capt. Thos. McKay).

The fourth session of the North West Council was held at Battleford May 26 to June 11, 1881. Three electoral districts had been formed, viz.: Kimberley, Salisbury and Lorne, the last of which returned Lawrence Clarke, Chief Factor of the Hudson's Bay Company at Fort Carlton, as the first elected member of the Council in the Territories. The most important legislative enactment of the session was the provision for short forms of conveyancing.

Hon. Edgar Dewdney succeeded Hon. David Laird as Lieutenant Governor of the North West Territories in May, 1883, and in the same year the capital was transferred to Regina. The construction of the Canadian Pacific Railway and the rapid growth of districts along the railway

led the Dominion Government to choose Regina. The North West Council convened on August 22nd. Six elected members sat in the Council as follows: Francis Oliver, Edmonton; Capt. D. H. McDowall, Lorne; John C. Hamilton, Broadview; T. W. Jackson, Qu'Appelle; Wm. White, Regina; Jas. H. Ross, Moose Jaw. A residence of twelve months in the district preceding the issue of the writ was the qualification necessary to vote. The ex-officio members were: Lt. Col. Hugh Richardson and Col. J. F. Macleod, stipendiary magistrates. The appointed members were Pascal Breland, Lt. Col. A. C. Irvine and Hayter Reed.

The activity of the Council of 1883, especially among the elected members, indicates real progress throughout the entire North-West, and also the need of increased legislative power for the Council. Memorials were sent to the Governor General complaining of certain policies that were being carried out by the Dominion Government, viz.: The reservation of land on both sides of the C. P. R. known as the Mile Belt Reserve, the granting of leases in grazing lands, the practice of putting cancelled homesteads up for sale, and granting of immense tracts of lands to Colonization Companies. Further requests were made for power to incorporate companies having territorial objects, two more stipendiary magistrates, reduction of the duties on agricultural implements, a per capita grant based upon an assumed population of 100,000 for public improvements and representation in the Dominion Parliament.

The sixth session of the North West Territories continued from July 3 to August 6, 1884. Two more members were added, being the elected representatives of Calgary and Moose Mountain. A total of 188 votes were cast in Calgary and 157 in Moose Mountain in these elections.

The liquor traffic was a prominent feature in the speech from the throne. The fee system of liquor permits introduced in the previous session had the effect of lessening the number of applications. Smuggling, however, was increasing notwithstanding the vigilance of the Mounted Police and the penalties imposed. The establishment of breweries was recommended by the Lieutenant Governor and endorsed by the Council to obviate smuggling. Thirty-six ordinances were passed in this session, the most important of which were the School and Municipal Ordinances.

A Select Committee reported (July 7, 1884), that the Federal Government should be requested to put Section 93, B. N. A. Act, in force in the Territories as provided by Section 9 of the North West Territories Act. The School Ordinance provided for the formation of school districts with power to levy taxes for school purposes. An appropriation of \$7,000 was divided among the different school districts. Those in operation were: Protestant, 17; Roman Catholic, 11. Three towns, viz.: Regina, Moose Jaw and Calgary were incorporated to date; also four municipalities, viz.: Qu'Appelle, South Qu'Appelle, Wolseley and Indian Head.

By the "Administration of Justice Ordinance 1884," the North West Territories were divided into three judicial districts, viz.: Assiniboia, Al-

berta and Saskatchewan, subdivided into Regina, Medicine Hat, Calgary, Macleod, Edmonton, Battleford and Prince Albert districts. Although the three stipendiary magistrates had concurrent jurisdiction over the whole of the Territories, for convenience Lieut. Col. Hugh Richardson resided at Regina, Lieut. Col. Macleod at Macleod, and Magistrate Rouleau at Battleford. There were sixty-three justices of the peace and thirty-four notaries at this time. Permits for 9,908 gallons of liquors were issued during the year.

This session is important in that it witnessed the first opposition to the control of the expenditure by the Lieutenant Governor, and the assertion of the rights of the Council to legislative and executive control of all matters relating to the government of the North West Territories such as was granted to the legislative assemblies of the older provinces of Canada. The opposition was led by Mr. Frank Oliver of Edmonton, and Mr. J. H. Ross of Moose Jaw in the form of an amendment to the Report of the Committee on Finance in framing the annual budget to be sent to the Federal Government.

The members of the Opposition claimed that the funds granted by the Parliament of Canada for the expenses of government in the North-West should be placed under the control of the representatives of the people instead of in the hands of the Lieutenant Governor. Subsidies similar to those received by the other provinces, grants in lieu of public lands until the North West Territories were able to take over these lands, funds for public schools on the security of school lands of the Territories, and that no person not directly responsible to the people should be allowed a voice in the local legislature or a seat at the Council Board.

The affairs of the North West Territories now began to attract the serious attention of the Dominion Parliament. In the session of 1885 bills were introduced providing for a census of the North West Territories, the introduction of the Torrens system of land registration and for representation of the Territories in the Parliament of Canada. The most pressing question of the hour was the discontent among the half-breeds who claimed the scrip privileges accorded the Metis of Manitoba. This question caused considerable feeling in the Council and throughout the whole of the Territories. A Commission consisting of Messrs. W. P. R. Street, A. E. Forget, and Roger Goulet was appointed on March 30th, too late, however, to prevent the half-breed uprising, known as the Second Riel Rebellion. The Commission was directed to enumerate the half-breeds resident in the Territories previous to July 15, 1870, and to issue scrip. The Commissioners disposed of the claims of 1815 half-breeds, issuing money scrip to the value of \$279,200 and land scrip for 55,200 acres.

The bill providing for representation was postponed until the census was taken.

Five million bushels of wheat were produced for export this year and the first shipment of wool from the Alberta ranchers was made in the

summer of 1885, the clip amounting to 70,000 lbs. The C. P. R. was completed. The last spike was driven by Sir Donald A. Smith at Craigellachie, B. C., November 7, 1885.

During the summer Hon. Thos. White, Minister of the Interior, visited the Territories. His visit formed the occasion for the people to lay their claims for reform directly before the Dominion Government. The petition of the people of Prince Albert expresses these claims in a general way: Representation in the Dominion Parliament; a legislative assembly for the Territories and abolition of the North West Council; the formation of a new province with control of public lands; railway branch lines and the Hudson's Bay Railway; the extension of the Habeas Corpus to the Territories; abolition of dues on timber for domestic purposes; opening of odd-numbered sections for homesteading; improved mail service; appointment of officials from residents of the Northwest; that unoccupied Indian reserves be opened for homesteading; that farmers be furnished with seed grain.

A re-arrangement of the territorial electoral divisions was made in 1885 and elections were held on September 15th. The members elected were: J. H. Ross, Moose Jaw; J. G. Turriff, Moose Mountain; S. A. Bedford, Moosomin; W. D. Perley and Robert Crawford, Qu'Appelle; H. C. Wilson, Edmonton; Viscount Boyle, Macleod; Charles Marshallsay, Broadview; Samuel Cunningham, St. Albert; O. E. Hughes, Lorne; D. F. Jelly and John Secord, Regina; D. Lauder and H. S. Cayley, Calgary.

The report of the Lieutenant Governor to the Minister of the Interior for 1885 showed that 71 school districts had been organized since the passing of the school ordinance of 1884, representing a school population of 2,500 pupils. A Board of Education for the Territories, of five members, was appointed. The members of the Board were Messrs. Marshallsay and Secord of the Assembly, Charles B. Rouleau and Pere Lacombe.

The movement for "better terms" which began in 1884 was vigorously revived in this session.

The Council by a vote of ten to seven carried a reply to the speech from the throne which was virtually a censure on the policy of the Dominion Government towards the Territories. The policy of the Council was contained in an elaborate memorial to the Dominion Parliament and presented by a special deputation, Messrs. Perley, Ross and Wilson.

In the session of 1886 the Dominion Parliament dealt with the memorial of the North West Council. Out of the twenty-seven reforms asked for, seventeen were granted and the others dealt with in a liberal spirit. The Habeas Corpus Act was extended to the Territories and a Supreme Court with appellate jurisdiction was established. Four Federal electoral districts were formed, two for Assiniboia, one each for Alberta and Saskatchewan. Two senators were provided for. The powers of the Council were enlarged to make ordinances relating to:

(a) Direct taxation within the province for territorial and municipal purposes.

(b) The incorporation of companies with territorial objects.

In addition to the completion of the C. P. R., this year witnessed plans for the extension of the Manitoba and North Western Railway, Long Lake Railway, Manitoba and Southwestern Railway and the Northwestern Coal and Navigation Company's Railway (the Galt Railway afterwards the Crowsnest Branch of C. P. R. and A. R. & I.) for which land grants of 6,400 acres per mile were given by the Dominion Parliament.

A special Committee of the North West Council was appointed in 1886 to draft memorials to the Dominion Government in matters requiring attention in the Territories and within scope of the Dominion.

The demands in the main were:

(a) Reduction in price of pre-emptions.

(b) Assistance for a system of secondary education.

(c) Payment of losses sustained by settlers during the rebellion of 1885.

(d) Vote by ballot.

(e) Votes for bona fide male adults after six months' residence in the electoral district.

(f) Reduction of freight rates on the C. P. R.

The Dominion Parliament was dissolved on January 17, 1887, and representatives for the electoral divisions of the N. W. T. were elected to the Dominion Parliament for the first time. These were as follows: Alberta, D. W. Davis; Assiniboia East, W. D. Perley; Assiniboia West, N. F. Davin; Saskatchewan, D. W. McDowall.

Land grants of 6,400 acres were given to the Athabasca Railway Company from a point south of Calgary to Edmonton, about 300 miles.

On February 18, 1887, the Territories were divided into five judicial districts, viz.: Eastern Assiniboia, Western Assiniboia, Northern Alberta, Southern Alberta and Saskatchewan. On the same date the following were appointed judges of the Supreme Court of the North West Territories: Hon. Hugh Richardson of Regina; Hon. Jas. F. Macleod, C. M. G., of Fort Macleod; Hon. Chas. B. Rouleau of Calgary; Hon. Edward Wetmore of Fredericton, N. B. The Territories' Real Property Act passed in 1886 by the Dominion Parliament went into effect on January 1, 1887, and under it the Torrens System was established. Registrars were appointed for the five Registration Land Districts resident at Prince Albert, Battleford, Regina, Calgary and Edmonton.

The last session of the North West Council opened on October 14, 1887. During the recess Lord Boyle and W. D. Perley resigned and in their places the following members were returned: Macleod, F. W. G. Haultain; Qu'Appelle, Wm. Sutherland.

The development of the country was reflected in the statements in the Speech from the Throne. The number of schools increased to 109 with

3,543 pupils. The crop returns from 168 townships showed 76,384 acres under cultivation, viz.: Wheat, 33,354 acres; oats, 29,416 acres; barley, 8,244; roots, 5,370 acres; new land broken, 16,596 acres.

The liquor law of the Territories or the permit system was declared by a report of a special committee of the Council to be "unsatisfactory and ineffective either as a temperance or a prohibitory measure." Accordingly a resolution was passed asking that power be given to the Council to deal with this question similar to the power enjoyed by the other provinces and that the Canada Temperance Act be put in force in the Territories.

On the 10th of November a special committee consisting of the elected members of the Council was appointed to prepare a memorial respecting the future Constitution of the North West Territories which placed the views of the people of the Territories before the Parliament of Canada.

The memorial embodied the terms and principles so often contended for in previous years with respect to larger powers of local government and control of expenditure. In this connection it is interesting to note the report of the Lieutenant Governor to the federal government. He wrote as follows:

"During the sitting of the Council a memorial was adopted recommending that a purely representative form of government take the place of our present Council. I think it my duty to inform you that my information from several scattered centres of population in the Territories, does not indicate that such is the general feeling of the people. A strong fear is expressed that a purely representative form of government will lead to direct taxation and thus impose upon settlers burdens which they are at present unable to bear."

On the 19th of November the North West Council met for the last time. During the session of 1888 the Dominion Parliament passed amendments to the N. W. T. Act creating a legislative assembly for the Territories of twenty-two members with three legal experts who held office during the terms of the assembly, took part in the debates but did not have the right to vote. The term of the assembly could not exceed three years (C. S. 1888 Cap. 19).

Hon. Edgar Dewdney, who had been Lieutenant Governor since the retirement of Hon. David Laird in 1883, became Minister of the Interior and was succeeded by Hon. Joseph Royal. The first legislative assembly of the Territories opened at Regina, October 31, 1888; Hon. H. C. Wilson, member for Edmonton was elected first speaker. The advisory council consisted of the following members:

Hon. F. W. G. Haultain, Macleod.

Hon. D. F. Jelly, North Regina.

Hon. Wm. Sutherland, North Qu'Appelle.

Hon. Hillyard Mitchell, Batoche.

The legal experts were: Hon. Justices Richardson, Macleod and Rouleau.

The new government immediately undertook a revision and consolidation of the ordinances of the North West Territories. The work was done by Hon. Justice Richardson and A. E. Forget, Clerk of the North West Council.

The legislature was anxious to obtain control of the liquor traffic by license or prohibition. The question was referred to the legal experts who decided that the legislature had no power to take a plebiscite on either question.

The abolition of the North West Council and the establishment of a legislative assembly did not solve the problems of legislation and executive government in the Territories. Although the assembly had been granted control of expenditure yet the N. W. T. Act did not clearly give the assembly that control of moneys voted by the Dominion Government for expenses in the Territories which was sufficient for the expedition of public business. There were parliamentary institutions without responsible government. There was no responsible body to prepare legislation for the consideration of the assembly and in consequence its legislative functions could not be satisfactorily performed.

There was no cabinet of responsible ministers. By law, the Lieutenant Governor was forced to select four members of the assembly as an advisory council only in matters of finance. He was president of the council and voted as a member thereof. In order to initiate legislation the assembly were forced to present "an humble address" to the Lieutenant Governor asking that he be pleased to appoint a commission to draft certain measures, which it should have been the right and duty of the assembly to do.

Strained relations ensued between the Governor and the Assembly on the question of the powers and responsibilities of the Advisory Council. The Lieutenant Governor held that the Assembly was not entitled to a statement of the public accounts on the ground that the moneys were granted from the Dominion, and that his responsibility to the Assembly was limited to the Territorial revenues alone, and so construed Section 13 of the N. W. T. Act of 1888, which was as follows:

"The Lieutenant Governor shall select from among the elected members of the Legislative Assembly four persons to act as an advisory Council on matters of finance, who shall severally hold office during pleasure; and the Lieutenant Governor shall preside at all sittings of such advisory Council and choose a right to vote as a member thereof, and shall also have a casting vote in case of a tie."

Consequently the first advisory Council resigned on October 29, 1889, and a new Council consisting of Messrs. Brett, Betts, Jelly and Richardson were appointed. This Council failed to receive the confidence of the Assembly and tendered their resignations November 11, 1889. The Governor refused to accept the resignations, stating that they were acting strictly



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within the law. The difficulty reached a crisis on the 14th, when the Assembly refused, on the motion of Mr. Haultain, to consider supply for 1889-90 until the expenditures of 1888-89 had been accounted for. The Lieutenant Governor was forced to accept the resignation of the Council. He tried to form a new Council with Mr. Tweed, Member for Medicine Hat as leader. Mr. Tweed refused unless the claims of the Assembly were acceded to.

On the 21st of November the Assembly adopted a memorial to the Dominion Government protesting against the Governor's interpretation of the N. W. T. Act and asking for an increased subsidy. On the following day the Assembly was prorogued. The Governor, feeling that he was forced by the Constitution to have a council, was obliged to select one "from amongst those willing to comply with the law irrespective of the fact whether they possessed the confidence of the House or not." This Council appointed February 8, 1890, were: Messrs. Brett, Betts, Jelly and Secord.

The conflict was revived again in the Session of 1890. In the reply to the speech from the Throne, the Assembly severely criticised the action of the Lieutenant Governor and the Advisory Council, ignored the members thereof in selecting the standing committees and refused all legislation offered by them. The reply was particularly censorious in matters of finance. It pointed out that by the Act creating the Assembly, no motion regarding finance might be adopted except it was first recommended by the Lieutenant Governor, while the power to pass such a motion unquestionably lay with the majority of the Assembly. It pointed out further that the Assembly could legislate on few subjects that did not involve finance, particularly so of schools. There existed the anomaly of the Assembly being responsible for proper legislation regarding schools, and yet deprived of the control of the funds necessary for the maintenance thereof. The Governor in a message to the Assembly defined his position clearly and firmly and held he was acting in accordance with the interpretation of the law set forth by the Minister of Justice of Canada. Before the Assembly prorogued the House passed an address to the Governor, which was never sent to him but appears on the Journals of the House. It sets forth the position of the majority of the members with great clearness and ability. The Assembly was prorogued on November 29th, and dissolved by the efflux of time June following.

The elections for the second assembly were held on October 31, 1891, and the session opened December 10th. J. H. Ross of Moose Jaw was elected speaker. In May of this year Messrs. Brett and Betts went to Ottawa to secure enlarged powers for the Assembly. An Act amending the N. W. T. Act (R. S. C. 1886, Cap. 50), gave power to the Lieutenant Governor to dissolve the Assembly at any time, and cause a new one to be chosen. The Assembly was to sit separately from the Lieutenant Governor. The cause of the various deadlocks in the two past years was re-

moved by the provision empowering the Assembly to make ordinances relating to: The expenditure of Territorial funds and such portions of any moneys appropriated by Parliament for the Territories as the Lieutenant Governor is authorized to expend by and with the advice of the Legislative Assembly or of any committee thereof (54-55 Vict. Cap. 22).

The Legislative Assembly proceeded at once to act upon the enlarged powers granted under the Statute and passed an ordinance dealing with the executive government of the Territories. It was held by the Minister of Justice (Sir John Thompson), that this Ordinance limited the powers of the Lieutenant Governor and was consequently in conflict with the terms of the N. W. T. Act which gave the Committee of the Assembly power to offer advice to the Lieutenant Governor only in matters of finance and expenditure and not to advise him on all matters connected with the duties of his office. The next year the Assembly repealed the ordinance and substituted legislation for the expenditure of Territorial funds and such portions of any moneys appropriated by Parliament for the Territories as the Lieutenant Governor was authorized to expend by and with the advice of the legislative assembly or any committee thereof.

The question of separate schools occupied the attention of the Assembly this session. Memorials from the Roman Catholics in the North West Territories to the Governor General in Council had been transmitted to the Lieutenant Governor, and laid before the Assembly. These memorials were supported by a further memorial to the Standing Committee on Education of the Assembly from Rev. Father Leduc, O. M. I., Vicar General of St. Albert, and Mr. A. E. Forget, Roman Catholic member of the Council of Public Instruction. The memorials complained that the laws relating to education tended to deprive the Roman Catholics of the management of their schools as provided by Section 14 of the North West Territories Act of 1886, which read as follows:

"The Lieutenant Governor in Council shall pass all necessary ordinances in respect to education; but it shall therein always be provided, that a majority of the rate-payers of any district or portion of the Territories, or of any less portion or subdivision thereof, by whatever name the same is known, may establish such schools therein as they think fit, and make the necessary assessment and collection of rates therefor; and also that the minority of the rate-payers therein, whether Protestant or Roman Catholic, may establish separate schools therein, and in such case, the rate-payers establishing such Protestant or Roman Catholic separate schools shall be liable only to assessment of such rates as they impose upon themselves in respect thereof.

"The power to pass ordinances, conferred upon the Lieutenant Governor by this section, is hereby declared to have been vested in him from the seventh day of May, one thousand eight hundred and eighty."

Among the rights of which the memorialists alleged they were deprived were the discipline of their schools, the grading and licensing of teachers,

selection of textbooks, inspection of schools by qualified persons of their own faith, the right of using the French language and of opening their schools by the recitation of prayers.

The memorials were referred to the Standing Committee on Education. The Committee presented a report which was endorsed by a majority of the Assembly, the vote being 19 to 3. The report stated that the school ordinance in force did not wrongfully deprive the Roman Catholics of the right to establish separate schools and that the regulations respecting schools should be left in the hands of the Council of Public Instruction.

This is a convenient place to refer to the use of the French language in the North-West. As we have seen, the first white men to reach the west were French and French Canadians. Most of the employes of the fur companies were French Canadians or French Half-breeds. On these grounds French was retained for a number of years as one of the official languages of the North West Territories. By the North West Territories Act the debates of the Assembly and the proceedings before the Courts could be conducted in either the French or the English languages. The Journals, reports and ordinances could be printed in both the French and English languages. But in 1891 the Parliament of Canada amended the North West Territories Act giving power to the Assembly of the Territories to regulate its proceedings and the manner of recording and publishing the same. [54-53 Vict. C. 22, s. 18.] Acting within this power Mr. Haultain introduced a resolution in January, 1892, that the proceedings of the Assembly be thereafter recorded and published in the English language only.

During the elections the question of the liquor traffic excited even greater public feeling than the constitutional differences between the Lieutenant Governor and the Assembly. By the amendments to the N. W. T. Act 1891, referred to above, the Assembly was empowered to enact legislation relating to saloon, tavern licenses and other licenses in order to raise a revenue for territorial and municipal purposes. Consequently as soon as the Assembly got a chance it abolished the unsatisfactory permit system and established the liquor traffic on the license basis. The ordinance provided that no license should be granted in a license district where a majority of three-fifths of the electors voted in favor of prohibition. Before the Assembly prorogued it passed a resolution, a forerunner of many subsequent resolutions, respecting the annual appropriation made by the federal government for the government of the North West Territories. The population and the necessities for local public improvements were growing rapidly while the subsidy was stationary. The resolution reiterated the claim made in 1884 for grants in lieu of lands, debt allowance and increased aid for education. In response to this memorial the Federal Government invited Mr. Haultain to Ottawa and as a result a lump sum of \$193,200 was granted, an increase of \$40,000.

The fourth session of the Second Legislative Assembly met on August

17, 1893. Ordinances were passed regulating mines, and the exportation of liquor to portions of Canada outside the Territories. A bill to establish a general land tax system was defeated. The words with which the Lieutenant Governor Royal dismissed the Assembly indicates the evolution of responsible government in the Territories:

"When on the 4th of July, 1888, I was sworn in as Lieutenant Governor of the North West Territories, the functions of that office were as totally different from those of the Lieutenant Governors of the Provinces as they will be from those performed by my successor. I was responsible to the Privy Council of Canada alone for all executive acts done in the Territories. The Assembly had hardly a voice in the government of the country and the Lieutenant Governor was practically a political commissioner under whose direct supervision and authority the affairs of the Territories were conducted and administered. Now all this has been changed and hence my satisfaction. The legislature today practically enjoys the rights and privileges of self-government."

Hon. C. H. Mackintosh succeeded Hon. Joseph Royal as Lieutenant Governor in November, 1893. The fifth session opened at Regina on August 2, 1894. The Speech from the Throne contained a review of the development of the country for the previous seven years. The number of schools had increased from 111 on June 30, 1887, to 372 on June 30, 1894, with a school population of about 8000. Expenditure for schools increased in the same period from \$36,397.47 to \$121,056.94.

The elections for the Third Legislative Assembly of the Territories were held October 31, 1894. Hon. J. F. Betts, member for Prince Albert East, was elected Speaker when the House met on August 29, 1895.

The session of 1896 opened September 29th. The separate school question was raised again, but the Assembly adhered to the ordinance as passed in conformity with the N. W. T. Act. On October 8th Mr. J. H. Ross, member for Moose Jaw, moved for a committee to prepare a memorial to the Dominion setting forth the financial and constitutional position of the Assembly, the need of fuller powers, and the basis upon which the Territorial subsidy should be determined.

On the 23rd the draft was submitted to the Assembly and adopted. Full provincial status was not demanded. The committee did not ask for right to raise money on the credit of the Territories, the chartering of railways and the administration of criminal laws. They asked that the executive government be put upon a more constitutional basis, viz.: That an executive council be substituted for the advisory committee, a body which had no competency to advise the Lieutenant Governor, to control dissolution or elections relating to the Assembly, and that the Assembly have power to appoint sheriffs, magistrates, coroners and all provincial officers.

Regarding the finances of the Territories the Assembly reiterated its position of 1892, viz.: That a fixed amount in the nature of a subsidy should

be granted and increased every four years. It was pointed out that whereas the population was 66,799 in 1891, and the federal grant \$211,200, the population in 1896 was 105,000 and the grant only \$242,879; that is, the population had increased 56% while the grant increased only 16%.

The items of the subsidy asked for were as follows:

(1) Per capita grant of 80 cents per head on a population of 112,906—\$183,133.

(2) Government and legislation—\$50,000.

(3) Adequate grant in lieu of public lands.

In pressing the claims in lieu of lands the Assembly urged that the revenues arising therefrom accrue to the Dominion of Canada. Land subsidies to the extent of 25,000,000 acres valued at \$25,000,000 had been given to railways in addition to a cash subsidy of \$25,000,000, of which amount the people of the Territories also bore their proportionate share. Had the Dominion of Canada paid the land subsidy in cash there would have been added to interest charges of the country the sum of \$750,000 per year.

The debate on the memorial was the occasion for the first suggestion for a separate province of Alberta, the matter being raised by Dr. Brett of Banff.

Important amendments to the school ordinance were made in this session which form the basis upon which grants are still made to the public schools of both Alberta and Saskatchewan.

The demands set forth in the memorial were recognized by the Dominion Government and in the speech from the Throne at the opening of the session of 1897, the Lieutenant Governor announced important changes in the Constitution of the Territories whereby, to quote his own words, "A completely responsible system of government" was obtained. A true executive council was chosen and public departments created for a better administration of the public service. Larger powers respecting roads and trails and important public works under territorial supervision were undertaken.

The ordinances of the Territories were consolidated and a considerable body of amending legislation was passed this session to secure simplicity and uniformity.

The session of 1898 was opened on August 16th by His Honour M. C. Cameron. During the recess the Yukon Territory had been separated by Order in Council from the North West Territories and organized under a separate government. The assumption of control by the federal government and the relinquishment thereof by the Territorial Government was attended by some little friction, especially respecting liquor permits. The Territorial Government sent Mr. G. H. V. Bulyea into the Yukon to issue license permits and establish regulations respecting the liquor traffic. Major Walsh, Commissioner of the Yukon, under the Dominion Government, who arrived later, refused to recognize the authority of the Terri-

torial Government, and conducted the traffic under regulations defined by the Mounted Police. Consequently two sets of permits were issued. In the end the Minister of Justice decided that the permits issued by the Government of the North West Territories were valid. Subsequently the Dominion Parliament passed the Yukon Territory Act superseding the Order in Council of 1897 and extinguishing the jurisdiction of the North West Territories over that part of Canada.

Before the Legislature prorogued Mr. Haultain introduced a resolution upon a question that has engaged the attention of legislators in the North-West since the beginning of western colonization. It relates to lands granted to railway or colonization companies. Invariably the policy of the corporations has been to withhold the land from sale or settlement, and avoid taxation by keeping the land valid in the Crown until it is purchased on a long instalment plan and the purchaser obtains the patent thereof. In his budget speech in 1897 Mr. Haultain showed that out of grants of nearly 6,000,000 acres, and consequently lands not available for taxes, only 204,000 acres had been patented. The resolution petitioned the Federal Government to force the location and issue of patents for all lands to which railway and colonization companies were entitled, so that they might bear their just proportion of taxes for schools, local improvements and other purposes.

His Honour M. C. Cameron died on September 26th, and was succeeded by His Honour A. E. Forget, for many years Clerk of the North West Council.

A new election was held on November 4, 1898, and the Assembly met on April 4, 1899. The Assembly consisted of 31 members, a number of new districts having been created by the Redistribution Bill of 1898. Wm. Eakin, member for Saltcoats, was elected Speaker.

The militia system was extended to the North West Territories in 1900.

From this period to the passing of the Alberta and Saskatchewan Acts the important question in the Territories was provincial autonomy, though there was a difference of opinion among the members of the Assembly whether there should be one province or two. It annually formed the subject of correspondence and negotiation between the Government of the North West Territories and the Dominion Government until the Autonomy Acts were passed in 1905. The memorial of the Assembly dated May 2, 1900, was followed in December 1901 by an elaborate memorandum from Mr. Haultain in which the whole question was reviewed and the problem stated. The Government of the Territories drew up a Bill of Rights which claimed all the powers of one of the old provinces of Canada.

On March 21, 1901, Hon. A. L. Sifton, who had accepted the position of Chief Justice of Alberta, was succeeded in the Department of Public Works by Hon. G. H. V. Bulyea. The control of the Land Titles' Offices and Registration Districts was transferred from the Dominion to the Territorial Government in 1903.

The session was brief, the usual memorial for provincial institutions was sent to Ottawa.

The last session of the Assembly of the North West Territories met on September 22, 1904, and prorogued on October 8th.

Party lines were always indefinitely drawn in the Assembly of the North West Territories, due, it is believed, to the influence of Mr. Haultain, Mr. Ross and Mr. Oliver. There was an unwritten but strong obligation recognized that the good government of the Territories depended upon the elimination of federal politics and the decision of all questions relating to the North-West on their merits as affecting the welfare of the Territories.

With the passing of the Autonomy Acts in 1905 party lines became clearly drawn, dividing the public men of the Territories into two distinct parties.

The Alberta Act came into force on September 1, 1905. Hon. G. H. V. Bulyea was appointed Lieutenant Governor, August 24, 1905. On September 1st, Hon. A. C. Rutherford, M. P. P. for Strathcona in the Territorial Assembly, was called upon to form the first Government of Alberta. On September 9th, the following appointments were gazetted:

President of the Council, Provincial Treasurer and Minister of Education, Hon. A. C. Rutherford, Strathcona; Attorney-General, Hon. C. W. Cross, Edmonton; Minister of Public Works, Hon. W. H. Cushing, Calgary; Provincial Secretary and Minister of Agriculture, Hon. W. T. Finlay; Hon. L. G. DeVeber became Minister without portfolio. In 1906 the latter was appointed to the Senate, and the Executive was reduced to four members.

The first general election was held on November 9th, 1905. The principal issues dividing the parties were the rights of minorities to establish separate schools, and the ownership of public lands. The alignment of parties in the Province naturally followed that of the Federal parties. Reference has been made already to both of these questions. The framing of the Provincial constitution raised these questions again, and this time for final settlement.

As far as the matter of schools was concerned, the Alberta Act has settled that issue finally, but the ownership of the Crown Lands of the Province is still a live and unsettled question. Sir Wilfred Laurier, Premier of Canada and leader of the Liberal Party of Canada, introduced the bill for the creation of the Province of Alberta in February, 1905.

The school clause of the Bill provided that the minority should have the right to establish their own schools and to share in the public funds for the maintenance of such schools. An ambiguity in the construction of the clause caused a sharp division in public opinion throughout the country, and especially in the Provinces of Ontario and Quebec. As the clause was first drawn, it was held by the opponents of separate schools that it re-established out and out denominational schools, on the basis of the North West Territories Act of 1875, under which Roman Catholic

Separate Schools had been established, with complete ecclesiastical control of finance, inspection, teaching and textbooks. These rights had been considerably restricted by the Territorial Assembly in 1892, limiting the right to establish separate schools to those sections in which the Catholics were in a minority, and limiting religious teaching to a nominal half hour at the close of the day. Later, Ordinances and regulations enforced by the authority of the Assembly, provided for uniform curricula, qualifications of teachers and inspections in all schools, public or separate.

The Conservative leaders in Parliament, and their followers in both houses, strongly opposed the clause in this form. Hon. Clifford Sifton, Minister of the Interior and the representative of the North West Territories in the Laurier Cabinet, resigned in protest against the clause, in which action he carried the support of many Liberals in all parts of the North West Territories and in Eastern Canada. Mr. F. W. G. Haultain, Premier of the North West Territories, and Mr. R. B. Bennett, the member for Calgary in the Territorial Assembly, led a fiery crusade against the clause. The opposition and the hostility of many Liberals that such a law would be incompatible with the long-declared liberal principle of Provincial rights led the Federal Government to amend the clause to make it certain that it conformed to the law passed by the Territorial Assembly, and then in force in the North West Territories; that is, the rights of minorities were those defined in the Territorial Ordinances of 1892 and 1901.

On the Land question the Liberals of the Province supported Sir Wilfred Laurier. The Conservative Party led by Mr. F. W. G. Haultain, in Saskatchewan, and Mr. R. B. Bennett in Alberta, contended that all lands, mines, and minerals situated in the Provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan should belong to the respective Provinces in the same way that those resources belong to the older Provinces of the Canadian Confederation, that is to say, the public lands should belong to the Crown in the right of the Province of Alberta, and in the right of the Province of Saskatchewan and not to the Crown in the right of the Dominion of Canada. The Liberal party led by Hon. A. C. Rutherford in Alberta, and Hon. Walter Scott in Saskatchewan, contended that the money grant in lieu of lands was a more satisfactory settlement of the question. Public opinion in the new Provinces was emphatically expressed at the polls. Premier Rutherford carried Alberta 23 seats to 2, and Premier Scott, in Saskatchewan, won 16 seats to 8.

The land question is still unsettled, although both parties, in fact all parties in the Province, agree that the lands should belong to the Province. In 1911, Premier Sifton, who had succeeded Premier Rutherford as Liberal leader, presented a formal demand to the Dominion Government to transfer the lands, mines and minerals still in the Crown, except the homestead lands, to the Province. Before any action could be taken upon the subject, the Liberal party led by Sir Wilfred Laurier, was defeated in the Federal

General Elections in October, 1911. The demand was renewed in 1913 by the three Prairie Provinces, and signed jointly by Premiers Sifton of Alberta, Scott of Saskatchewan and Roblin of Manitoba. Subsequent demands were made in 1919, and a conference of the Premiers of all the Provinces was held at Ottawa. It was found, however, that the older Provinces of Canada objected to a revision of the Alberta Act in this respect, and to the transfer of the lands to the Prairie Provinces without compensation, and readjustment of subsidies in favour of the older members of confederation. There the issue lies today.

CHAPTER VIII.

POLITICAL HISTORY OF ALBERTA—1905-1921.

The first Legislative Assembly of Alberta met at Edmonton on March 15, 1906. Hon. C. W. Fisher, Cochrane, was elected Speaker and Mr. J. R. Cowell, of Red Deer, was clerk of the Assembly. Mr. A. J. Robertson, Nanton, led the opposition of two. The first duty of the Assembly was to organize the various departments of the public service. Many of the members of the Civil Service of the Territories were moved from Regina to Edmonton, and the various records applicable to the new Province transferred to the new capital.

One of the burning questions of the session was the determination of the capital of Alberta. There was strong rivalry between the cities of Calgary and Edmonton. The towns of Strathcona, Red Deer and Banff also desired the honor. The issue was settled by the Assembly by a vote of 16 to 8 in favor of Edmonton. Important measures of legislation included a complete revision of the Territorial law on real property, taxation of the right of way of railways, bonusing the sugar beet industry, and an act to enable municipalities to establish and operate telephones. The taxation of railways was very popular with the people, as it was regarded as a measure particularly aimed at the Canadian Pacific Railway Company, which had enjoyed exemption from taxation since its incorporation in 1881. The law was contested by the Canadian Pacific Railway Company in the courts and was held *intra vires*, only with respect to the Company's branch lines.

The most important public measure in 1907 was the decision of the Government to build rural telephone lines and trunk telephone lines to protect the public from what the Government alleged was the monopoly of the Bell Telephone Company. Overtures were made to this Company by the Government towards purchasing the Bell System in Alberta, but without success. In pursuance of its policy the Government built five hundred miles of trunk telephone lines between Lloydminster, Edmonton and Calgary. In matters of legislation the Railway Act was regarded as very radical, providing as it did for the acquisition by the Province of any railway under Provincial jurisdiction.

New measures of taxation provided for taxing corporations and assessing lands outside of school districts. The latter taxes were earmarked for the support of education.

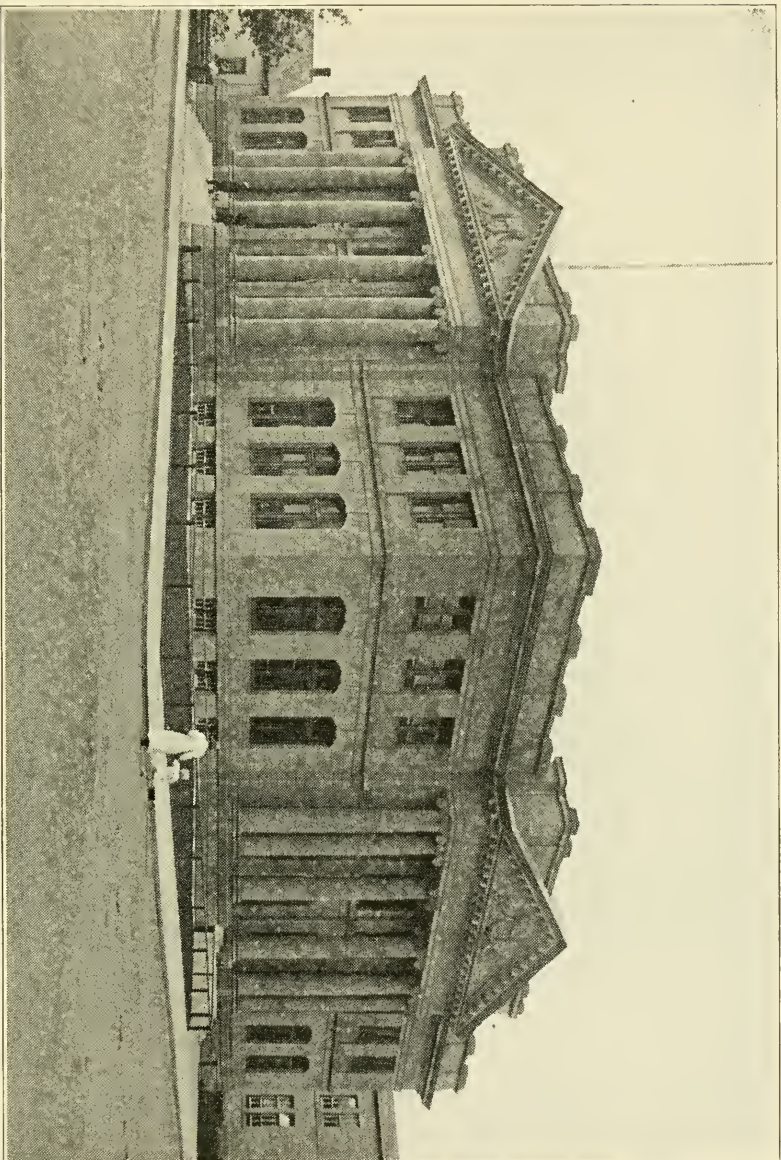
Federal elections were looming up. Both parties held conventions to prepare their organizations for the approaching political battle. The Conservatives met at Red Deer, June 27th. The Liberals met four hundred strong at Calgary, October 22nd. These events marked the end of the isolation of Western provincial politics from federal politics. Both parties lined up behind their respective federal parties and for many years federal and provincial issues have been inextricably tangled.

Not much legislation was attempted in 1908. The most important Acts were the Workmen's Compensation Act, and an Act to empower the Government to purchase, lease, construct, maintain and operate telephone and telegraph systems and to issue debentures for the same. The Government issued four per cent thirty-year debentures, the first money borrowed by the Province of Alberta for extension of the Provincial telephone system.

The session of 1909 was a busy and important one. The life of the first Legislative Assembly was drawing to a close and legislation for creating machinery for holding an election was necessary. The Legislative Assembly Act was revised and the membership of that body increased to 41, one member for each constituency, excepting Calgary and Edmonton, which were given two members each. The term of the Assembly was increased from four to five years. A new Election Act was passed dealing with corrupt practices, qualification of voters, lists, registration and other matters in a manner more in keeping with the improvement of the country than was possible under the old Territorial law. The great question of the session was railways. The two leaders in the Legislature were equally emphatic in their public utterances in support of a forward railway policy. The rapid settlement of the Province in districts remote from the main lines rendered this the greatest need of the day. Accordingly, the Government decided upon the policy which seemed very popular in those days, of guaranteeing the securities of branch lines of the Canadian Northern, Grand Trunk Pacific, and the Alberta and Great Waterways Railway Companies.

This involved a total mileage of 1,761 miles, and a Provincial guarantee of \$25,343,000. On the C. N. R. and G. T. P. lines were guarantees to the extent of \$13,000 per mile, the bonds to run for thirty years at four per cent. In the case of the Alberta and Great Waterways Railway, which was designed to connect Edmonton with the river system of the North, the guarantee was for \$20,000 per mile, the bonds to run for fifty years at five per cent.

On this policy the Rutherford ministry appealed to the electors on March 22nd. Meanwhile, the Conservatives held a Provincial Convention at Red Deer, and issued what was long afterwards known as the "Red Deer Platform." On the important questions of the hour there was little difference in the policies of the two parties. The Government won an overwhelming victory at the polls, the standing of the parties being one



EDMONTON COURTHOUSE

Socialist, three Conservatives and thirty-seven Liberals. Mr. R. B. Bennett, who had been defeated in 1905, and though not the official leader of the Opposition, was the real leader of the Conservatives in the campaign, and was elected for one of the Calgary seats. He vigorously denounced the Alberta and Great Waterways project, a portent of the storm he was to launch in the following session.

On October 3rd the corner stone of the new Parliament Building was laid by Earl Grey, Governor-General of Canada. Hon. W. T. Finlay, Minister of Agriculture, resigned on October 21st, on account of ill health, and was succeeded by Hon. Duncan Marshall. At the same time Premier Rutherford enlarged his Cabinet by adding two Ministers without portfolio, Hon. W. A. Buchanan and Hon. P. E. Lessard.

For five years the politics of the Province had been placid and uneventful and the administration of public affairs progressive and honest. The session of 1910 witnessed a perturbation and upheaval that split the Liberal party into two factions, which more than a decade afterwards still regarded each other with some jealousy and distrust.

The subject of dissension was the guaranteeing of the bonds of the Alberta and Great Waterways Railway Company and the details of the agreement made between the Railway Company and the Government for the construction of the road. During the autumn of 1909 the Railway Company succeeded in selling the bonds to the firm of J. P. Morgan & Company, of New York and London, at par, the proceeds of which, \$7,400,000, were deposited in certain banks in Edmonton to the credit of the Government. The Railway Company, of which W. R. Clarke, of Kansas City, an aggressive railway promoter, was President, signed an agreement with the Government on October 25th, for the construction of the railway. The next step was to organize the Canada West Construction Company, a subsidiary concern, to build the road. The Railway Company then assigned its rights in the proceeds of the bonds to the Construction Company, which, in turn, assigned its rights to the Royal Bank of Canada as security for advances made to the Construction Company for work done upon the railway. Meanwhile, the bonds had been resold to various investors at 110 by the Morgans, or \$740,000 profit. Enemies of the Government jumped to the conclusion that President Clarke and certain members of the Government secretly participated in this profit. A good many members of the Legislature, who apparently thought the Morgans were in the bond business for others, and not for themselves, were influenced by these insinuations. It was afterwards proven at the investigation of the Royal Commission that these charges were untrue.

The Assembly met on February 10th. A few innocent questions on the order paper in the opening days of the session were the first signs of the storm that finally overthrew the Government. On the 14th, Hon. W. H. Cushing resigned on the grounds as stated in his letter to Premier Rutherford, that he had not been consulted in the negotiations leading

up to the agreement, and that the agreement and specifications signed by Premier Rutherford as Minister of Railways, with the Alberta and Great Waterways Railway Company, failed to protect the interests of the Province. In his statement to the Assembly, Premier Rutherford denied these allegations and asserted the negotiations were concluded with the full concurrence of the entire cabinet. Overtures were then made by President Clarke of the Railway on February 23rd to improve the conditions of the agreement and build a better road than required by the specifications of the original contract. These overtures were met by a resolution presented by J. R. Boyle and D. Warnock, purporting to expropriate the rights of the Railway Company, vest the same in the Province and proceed at once with the construction of the railway under the supervision of a Commission appointed by the Legislature. This resolution precipitated the most furious and acrimonious debate that has ever taken place in the Alberta Legislature. Public feeling ran high for and against the Government, and hundreds more than could be accommodated in the galleries struggled for admittance at every sitting. Mr. Cushing explained the reasons for his resignation, and stated that the railway could be built according to the specifications of the contract for \$12,000 per mile. In rebuttal Premier Rutherford submitted the estimate of the Government's Engineer, Mr. R. W. Jones, of \$20,000, and the Company's estimate of \$27,000 per mile. Attorney-General Cross stoutly defended the agreement and the whole project. Two amendments were offered to Mr. Boyle's resolution. One by E. H. Riley and J. M. Glendenning was a straight want of confidence in the Government. The other by J. W. Woolf and John A. McDougall called for the acceptance of President Clarke's offer to revise the contract and improve the specifications, and to set aside \$1,000,000 as a guarantee for the completion and operation of the road. The climax of the debate was reached in the speech of Mr. R. B. Bennett, the leader of the Conservatives, on March 2nd. He spoke for five hours and made such an impression on the Liberal insurgents that they incorporated Mr. Riley's amendment into Mr. Boyle's resolution. Notwithstanding, the Government was sustained by a vote of 23 to 15. The insurgents, now acting with the Conservatives, refused to accept the decision of the House as final, and with the support of the two strongest Liberal newspapers in the Province, the Edmonton Bulletin and the Calgary Albertan, agitated for a new Government led by Chief Justice Sifton, Hon. Peter Tabot, or Hon. W. H. Cushing. On March 8th, Premier Rutherford invited Mr. Cushing to return to the Cabinet since a new agreement was to be made and he was loath to break with his old colleague. Hon. C. W. Cross refused to stay in the government if Mr. Cushing returned, and tendered his resignation next day. He was followed by Hon. W. A. Buchanan. Mr. Cushing refused to come back and Mr. Cross withdrew his resignation. These events gave the insurgents and the Opposition the opportunity they had been seeking, and they promptly moved a

no-confidence motion, which was lost by the narrow majority of 3, the vote standing 20 to 17.

It was clear the Government could not carry on the business of the House efficiently until the cloud of rumors that filled the country was dispelled. On the 14th Premier Rutherford presented and carried unanimously a resolution drawn up by Attorney-General Cross and Mr. Bennett appointing a Royal Commission, Hon. D. L. Scott, Hon. Horace Harvey and Hon. N. D. Black, three Justices of the Supreme Court, to investigate the relations of the members of the Government, members of the Legislature and officials of the Government in connection with the incorporation and organization of the Alberta and Great Waterways Railway Company, the guaranteeing of the bonds of the Railway, and the contract for building the railway.

The House voted supplies for five months and after authorizing the construction of twenty-five miles of the railway adjourned on March 17th until May 26th. The Royal Commission had not completed its labors when the House reassembled on May 26th. The Lieutenant Governor informed the members he had accepted Premier Rutherford's resignation and had called upon Hon. A. L. Sifton, Chief Justice of Alberta, to form a Government. Mr. Sifton accepted the responsibility and on June 3rd announced his ministry as follows:

President of the Council, Provincial Treasurer and Minister of Public Works, Hon. Arthur Lewis Sifton; Attorney-General and Minister of Education, Hon. Charles Richmond Mitchell, Medicine Hat; Provincial Secretary, Hon. Archibald J. McLean, Lethbridge; Minister of Agriculture, Hon. Duncan Marshall, Olds.

The choice of Mr. Sifton for Premier was not unanimous among the members of the Assembly. Certain members wanted ex-Attorney General C. W. Cross, others ex-Minister of Public Works W. H. Cushing, and J. R. Boyle to be in the new Government. E. H. Riley, Gleichen, resigned his seat as a protest against the exclusion of Mr. Cushing. The new Ministers all found seats in the bye-elections June 29th, but Mr. Riley was defeated by a Sifton supporter, Mr. A. J. McArthur, in Gleichen. Though the supporters of Mr. Cross were sorely disappointed he generously declared his adherence to the Sifton Government.

The Royal Commission completed its investigations on July 7th, and submitted a majority report signed by Messrs. Justice Harvey and Justice Scott, and a minority report signed by Mr. Justice Beck, a few days before the legislature met in November. The majority report considered the Government as mildly censurable in some of its arrangements and actions, but completely exonerated Premier Rutherford and Attorney-General Cross from having any personal interest in the scheme or negotiations. The minority report exonerated the Government and criticised Mr. Cushing for his actions in the affair. Ten years have passed, and nothing has ever been discovered that reflected on the honesty of the members of the

Rutherford Government in all transactions with the Alberta and Great Waterways Railway Company.

Public interest in the Report of the Commission soon died down in the face of Premier Sifton's policy in dealing with the Alberta and Great Waterways Railway. In July the Railway Company defaulted in the payment of the first instalment of the interest and the Government was compelled to pay it to the Morgans in London. The company did nothing during the summer toward construction. President Clarke refused to testify before the Royal Commission. The Railway Company became very unpopular with the public and the legislature. On November 24th Premier Sifton introduced a bill which afterwards passed the House, declaring that the proceeds and interest accruing from the sale of the bonds of the Alberta and Great Waterways Railway Company should become part of the general revenue of the Province and might be expended for any purpose authorized by the Legislature. The measure was vigorously opposed by ex-Premier Rutherford, Mr. Cross, Mr. Bennett, the entire Conservative opposition and a number of Liberals, followers of Mr. Cross, particularly Mr. James K. Cornwall, who had been instrumental in securing the organization of the Railway Company to develop the Northland. Immediately after the passing of the Act the Government served notice on the Royal Bank and presented a cheque for \$6,042,830.06, being the amount standing to the credit of the Province in a special account and representing the portion of the proceeds of the Alberta and Great Waterways bonds deposited in that bank. The bank refused to pay the cheque and the Government immediately sued the bank for the amount. The litigation dragged on over two years and at times greatly embarrassed the Government. Although it is anticipating the events in this chapter, we shall follow the incidents and turns of this political imbroglio to their conclusion at once.

The trial of the issue was heard by Hon. Justice Stewart of the Supreme Court of Alberta in November, 1911, who gave judgment for the Province. His decision was upheld by the Court en Banc in April, 1912. Meanwhile, the Railway Company appealed to the Minister of Justice of Canada to recommend the disallowance of the Act to the Governor-in-Council. The Minister of Justice finally decided that the Act should not be disallowed on the ground that it would be prejudicial to the credit of the Dominion and not advisable in the interests of the Province to take legislative measures to prevent the improvident application of the funds. The bank appealed from the decision of the Alberta Courts in January, 1913, to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. The Privy Council sustained the appeal of the Royal Bank and declared that the legislature had no power to convert the funds raised for the specific purpose of building the railway into general revenue for other purposes and that the lenders were entitled to a return of their money if the objects for which the money was raised were not carried out. This right was a right out-

side the Province over which the Legislature had no jurisdiction. The Act was therefore *ultra vires*.

The decision was an embarrassing one for the Government. So confident was the Government of its position in the case that the Treasurer issued short term Treasury bills expecting to repay them with the money held up in the banks. It left the Government with a large temporary indebtedness on its hands which had to be met and gave the opposition strong party material in the Legislature and in the elections which followed in April, 1913. The decision was such a sudden reversal of the Government's policy that nothing was done in the first session of 1913, and at the conclusion of the session in March, Premier Sifton promised nothing would be done without consulting the Legislature. Accordingly, a session was called early in the fall of that year. The Act passed in 1910, which the Privy Council declared *ultra vires*, was repealed, and arrangements were made with Mr. J. D. McArthur, a well-known and reliable railway contractor, to proceed with the construction of the Alberta and Great Waterways Railway, to be completed by the end of 1915. The intervention of the war, the great increase in the cost of labor and materials, drove the contractor into bankruptcy and the Government was compelled to take over the construction of the road under circumstances that rendered the cost much higher than was originally provided for.

At last the Alberta and Great Waterways imbroglio was settled. At this date, and after several years have passed, it is difficult to understand why such acrimonious dissension should have arisen and why a ministry recently endorsed in a general election, and with an outstanding record of progressive legislation and efficient administration should have been forced out of office. But it was the first experience the Alberta legislature had with railway companies and railway contractors. The major criticism of the project by the members of the Assembly and press was that the Railway Company had no capital of its own. It did not yet occur to these ingenuous novices that the railways of the West have been built by men with faith and other people's money—much of it the money of the people of Canada.

Going back to the events of 1910 again the Conservatives held a Convention in July and elected Edward Michener, member for Red Deer, as leader of the Opposition, a position he held until he was appointed to the Senate in December, 1917. Mr. R. B. Bennett had retired to contest the Federal riding of Calgary in the election of September, 1911.

The second session of 1910 marked the first move on the part of the Liberal party in the Province to modify its position of 1905 on the question of the public lands, mines and other natural resources held by the Dominion pursuant to the Alberta Act. A motion presented by A. Bramley-Moore and James K. Cornwall was unanimously supported. But the motion was withdrawn, Premier Sifton stating that the Government was

preparing a formal demand for the transfer of the natural resources to Alberta. This attitude had been adopted by Premier Sifton as soon as he became Premier a few months before, and apparently he found the rank and file of the party willing followers.

A number of bye-elections were held in 1911, all going against the Government. The new members of the Opposition were: Messrs. T. M. Tweedie, Calgary; H. W. Riley, Gleichen; Robert Patterson, Macleod; and J. S. Stewart, Lethbridge. The session held the following year was the first in which the Government was opposed by a regularly organized, effective opposition.

The policy of encouraging railway construction by a guarantee of bonds was continued. During the session over 1,800 miles of railway lines were assisted in this way, as follows:

(1) Grand Trunk Pacific, Bickerdike to the coal fields on the Embarras River, 58 miles, at \$20,000 per mile.

(2) Edmonton, Dunvegan and British Columbia, Edmonton to Peace River Valley, along the south shore of Lesser Slave Lake to Dunvegan, 350 miles, at \$20,000 per mile.

(3) Canadian Northern Railway:

(a) Athabaska Landing to Fort McMurray, 175 miles at \$15,000 per mile.

(b) From above line eastward to Lac la Biche, 40 miles, at \$15,000 per mile.

(c) Athabaska Landing to Peace River Landing, 100 miles, at \$15,000 per mile.

(d) Onoway to Pine River Pass, 250 miles, at \$20,000 per mile.

(e) Edmonton to St. Paul de Metis, 100 miles at \$13,000 per mile.

(f) Bruederheim to Vermilion, Wainwright and Medicine Hat, 200 miles, at \$13,000 per mile.

(g) Calgary to Brazeau River, 100 miles, at \$13,000 per mile.

(h) Camrose to eastern boundary, 80 miles, at \$13,000 per mile.

(i) Cochrane to Edmonton, 100 miles, at \$15,000 per mile.

(j) Calgary towards Saskatoon, 130 miles, at \$13,000 per mile.

The total railway securities guaranteed by these Acts involved \$25,755,000. The total railway mileage guaranteed in the Province at that date was 3,074 miles involving \$44,098,000.

Very few guarantees were given by the Legislature after this session. It will be noticed the Canadian Pacific Railway did not share in this catalogue of guarantees so lavishly bestowed on the Canadian Northern Railway Company. It was a fine example of the methods of the Canadian Northern Railway interests in pre-empting territory for their lines to forestall their competitors. Many of these lines were never built on account of the intervention of the war, and happily for the taxpayers of the Province of Alberta, the Canadian Northern Railway Lines have been

taken over by the Government of Canada and thus a heavy burden in annual interest charges has been thrown upon broader shoulders.

The Cabinet was enlarged in 1912 to include eight members. Two new departments were organized. The municipal legislation of the session of that year and the necessity of assisting and supervising the extension of local Government rendered a department of Municipal Affairs necessary. The Railway Acts and the pledging of the credit of the Province to guarantees of bonds made it advisable to create a new Department of Railways which was combined with Telephones. Besides the necessities of the public service there was also the pressure of party factions that induced Premier Sifton to stabilize his position as leader of the Liberal Party by taking in Hon. C. W. Cross and some of the leaders of the old insurgent group that overthrew the Rutherford Government, but had been left out of Mr. Sifton's first cabinet, two years before. The new ministry was announced May 4th as follows: Premier and Minister of Railways and Telephones, Hon. Arthur Lewis Sifton; Attorney-General, Hon. Charles Wilson Cross; Minister of Public Works, Hon. Charles Richmond Mitchell; Provincial Secretary, Hon. Archibald J. McLean; Minister of Agriculture, Hon. Duncan Marshall; Provincial Treasurer, Hon. Malcolm MacKenzie; Minister of Education, Hon. John Robert Boyle; Minister of Municipal Affairs, Hon. Charles Stewart.

The bye-elections were held on May 27th. All the new Ministers carried their seats, but with reduced majorities. On the same date a bye-election was held in Cardston, where Mr. Martin Woolf, the Liberal candidate, succeeded Mr. J. W. Woolf, who had resigned his seat to reside in the United States. Protests, the first in Alberta, were filed against the return of Mr. Cross and Mr. MacKenzie, citing charges and alleging various kinds of political corruption. The petition against the election of Mr. Mackenzie was dismissed by the Supreme Court, while the one against Mr. Cross was before the courts when the General Election was held in the spring of 1913.

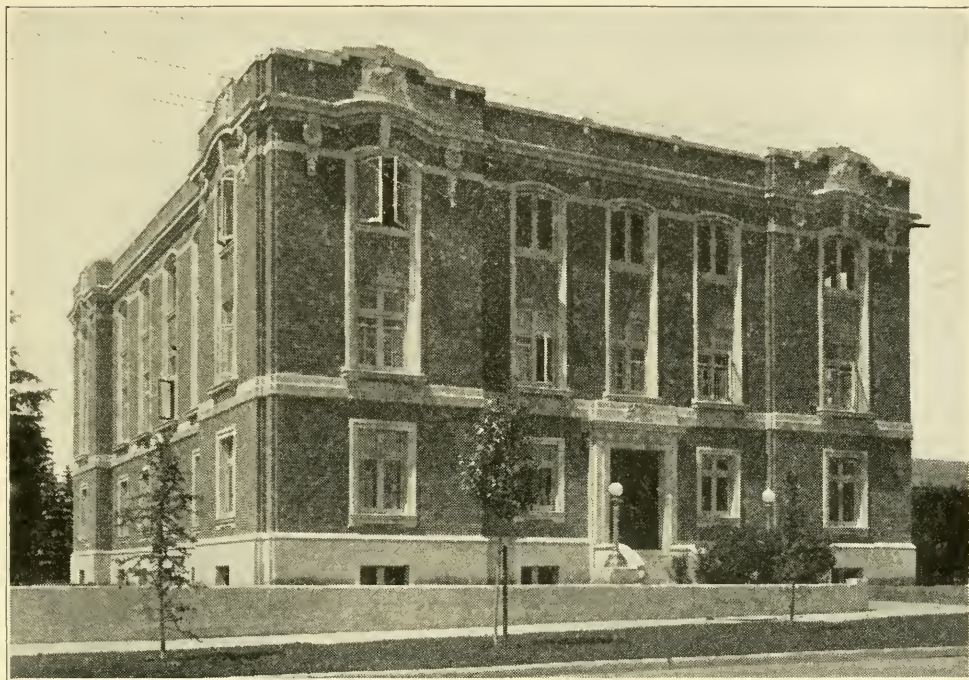
The results of the bye-elections, though strongly in favor of the Government, indicated that the Conservative Party was gradually recovering from the sweeping defeats of 1905 and 1909. A Provincial general election was now in sight. A Provincial Convention of the Conservative Party was held in Calgary on March 6th and 7th, attended by four hundred delegates. An elaborate platform covering Provincial and Federal issues was adopted. In the light of subsequent events some of the principles and policies adopted are exceedingly interesting. The Convention declared for an independent audit of the provincial accounts as soon as the party succeeded at the polls. Since that date the Liberal Party has been defeated, and its successor, the United Farmers' Party, has carried out this policy, and made an independent audit. The Convention pledged itself to legislation embodying the principle of the Initiative, Referendum and Recall. In the following year the Sifton Government passed the Di-

rect Legislation Act, providing for the Initiative and Referendum, omitting the Recall. The law was never invoked except in case of restricting the sale of intoxicating liquors in 1915. The Initiative, the Referendum and especially the Recall, have never been popular with the old line parties in the Province. Few Conservatives in Alberta today adhere to this plank of their platform adopted in 1912. But the principle has been adopted in its entirety by the Farmers' Party and many members of that Party in the Assembly have placed their resignations in escrow in the hands of the United Farmers' Executive of the districts they represent.

The new Parliament Buildings were opened this year (1912) by H. R. H. the Duke of Connaught and celebrated by a state dinner, followed the next day by a Grand Levee in the Assembly Hall. The new buildings were erected on the site of the Hudson's Bay Fort, which stood there from the early years of the 19th century.

The last session of the second Legislature opened on February 10th. It was a very busy session and the program of legislation indicated the approach of the elections. A redistribution bill was passed increasing the number of constituencies to 56. Acts were passed establishing Agricultural High Schools, Consolidated Schools, Co-Operative Associations, Assistance to the Farmers' Co-Operative Elevator Company, Direct Legislation. Increased taxing powers were given to towns and villages and an act designed to protect farmers from harsh treatment at the hands of implement dealers, the Farm Machinery Act was put on the Statute Book. The opposition was very critical of the Government's railway policy, and presented a resolution condemning the exemption of the railways guaranteed by the Government from taxation. The resolution was defeated by a straight party vote, Mr. Sifton declaring that it was the policy of the Liberal Government to encourage railway construction, and that at a time when nearly 3,500 miles of railways had been guaranteed by the Province it was bad policy to begin taxing them.

The elections were held on April 17th, 1913, and resulted in the return of 38 Liberals and 18 Conservatives. Mr. C. R. Mitchell, Minister of Public Works, was defeated by Mr. Nelson Spencer, Medicine Hat, and Mr. A. G. MacKay, who was Mr. Cross' running mate in Edmonton, was defeated by Mr. A. F. Ewing. George Lane, the famous rancher, who was elected in Bow Valley over H. W. Riley, resigned in favor of the Minister of Public Works. Mr. Mitchell was returned in the bye-election and so held his seat in the Cabinet. A crop of petitions grew out of the election, the most notable being in the Clearwater Constituency against the return of H. W. McKenney, the objection alleged being how could 105 votes be polled in a Constituency that had only 74 voters residing in the whole Constituency. The petition against Mr. A. S. Shandro, of Whitford, was successful, and Mr. Shandro was unseated. Mr. Shandro was the first Austrian-born citizen of the Province to be elected to the Legislature of Alberta. He was born in Galicia, emigrating to Canada when



RANCHMAN'S CLUB, CALGARY



CALGARY GOLF AND COUNTRY CLUB

a lad. He rapidly assimilated Canadian ideas and methods, and soon became a leader among his people. He represented the almost wholly-Russian Constituency of Whitford until 1921. A notable addition to the Legislature this year occurred in the return of Mr. A. G. MacKay in the deferred election in Athabasca. Mr. MacKay had formerly been leader of the Liberal Party in Ontario and quickly rose to a commanding position in the Legislature of Alberta.

At the opening of the new Legislature in September, Hon. C. W. Fisher was elected speaker for the third time, an honor that he held until his death at the end of the session of 1919. The principal business was the settlement of the Alberta and Great Waterways Railway question by the execution of an agreement to build the railway with Mr. J. D. McArthur, according to the Act of Incorporation of the Railway Company. Other legislation of importance was the taxation of the Unearned Increment on land. The new measure imposed a tax of five per cent at the time of registration upon the increased value of the land excluding the improvements. A new Libel and Slander Act was passed and Juvenile Courts established.

After the session Mr. Wilfred Gariepy, member for Beaver River, was taken into the Cabinet as Minister of Municipal Affairs. Hon. Mr. Stewart was transferred to the Department of Public Works. Hon. Mr. Mitchell, who held the latter portfolio, became Provincial Treasurer. Premier Sifton had acted as Treasurer since the death of Hon. Malcolm MacKenzie in the previous March, but now desired to give his sole attention to the extension of railways and telephones.

The financial position of the Province was stated by the Premier on September 30th, to be a total outstanding indebtedness of \$15,741,981. The total amount of authorized railway bond guarantees was \$68,631,800, of which \$30,124,700 were issued. The assets of the Province were estimated at \$110,378,000.

The beginning of 1914 marks the advent of a more settled period in Alberta politics than characterized the events of the previous four years. Premier Sifton, by fearless and dexterous leadership triumphed over all his difficulties. Intellectually brilliant, a master of men, and endowed with a canny insight into their minds, familiar by long residence in the country with its deepest problems, a reformer, sometimes of an iconoclastic turn, and often arrogantly democratic, he was an ideal leader. He was implicitly trusted and sometimes feared by his colleagues in the Cabinet. He was always master of the House. His followers on the back benches believed he could lead them safely through every attack of the opposition, and he always did. He rarely left the House during a sitting. During a protracted debate, he generally tilted his chair backward into a comfortable position. A dry cynical smile froze on his face, making it impossible for an opponent to detect the working of his mind. If the House was in Committee he sat in the same position, nonchalantly smok-

ing his black cigar, and except for an occasional raising of his eyebrows and the flashing of his piercing eyes, he sat as motionless as a statue and as silent as a sphinx. But when the moment came for him to reply he seemed to boil over with indignation and poured out a torrent of scathing ridicule, bitter taunts or inexorable logic, whichever he deemed necessary to rout his opponents.

Political events in 1914 were eclipsed by the war. In January the members of the Opposition visited Ottawa in a body to confer with the Federal Government and Dominion Conservative leaders on such questions as naturalization, Provincial control of lands, the chilled meat industry, technical education and other matters.

The first war session met on October 7th and lasted fifteen days. When the war broke out a Liberal Convention was in session at Calgary with five hundred delegates. It decided to abandon party action. Dr. Michael Clark, M. P., fathered a resolution which was unanimously endorsed by the Convention, declaring a party truce in the face of the crisis that threatened the Empire. At the opening of the Legislature this truce was ratified by both parties in a unanimous resolution, pledging the entire resources of the Province to the Empire and its Allies, in what the resolution stated was a struggle for the "continuity of democratic civilization".

A number of non-contentious Acts were passed this session. The extra Judicial Seizures Act provided that every distress, excepting for taxes, must be made by a sheriff, or his bailiff, who must have a proper warrant under heavy penalties for infraction. The Foreclosure and Sale Act materially reduced costs and expenses of litigation in enforcing rights under mortgages, agreements for sale, and other encumbrances. The costly method of writs and pleadings was replaced by a simple procedure. Taxes were increased and new ones imposed on pool-rooms, bowling alleys, travellers for liquor houses, bartenders, circuses, travelling shows and clubs. The pessimism induced by the catastrophe of the war put the House and the people in a proper Puritan spirit to accomplish such reforms without discord. A tax was imposed on uncultivated lands of one per cent of their assessed value. It affected over 20,000,000 acres of land in the Province, held for the most part by speculators. A tax of two-and-one-half cents per acre was levied on timber lands. Considerable legislation was passed for the relief of the people in war time. The Government did not impose a moratorium, but Premier Sifton announced there would be no seizure or sale permitted under any document without the Order of a Judge, and he warned certain loan companies if they took advantage of war conditions to renew loans for long terms at increased rates, means would be found to prevent them from doing any further business in the Province—a characteristic Siftonian threat.

The Direct Legislation Act gave the Prohibitionists an opportunity to take the first step to abolish the bar and curtail the liquor trade. On

October 12th they presented a petition signed by 23,000 electors, and submitted a Prohibition Liquor Act. On October 19th, in accordance with that request, Premier Sifton without opposition, provided for the submission of the Act by a referendum on July 21, 1915. The Prohibitionists, led by the Alberta Temperance and Moral Reform League, contested the issue with the Licensed Victuallers' Association throughout the summer of 1915, and finally won by a vote of 58,295 for prohibition and 37,509 against. A bye-election was held in Wetaskiwin in the fall of 1914, due to the death of Chas. H. Olin. He was succeeded by H. J. Montgomery, the Liberal candidate.

For some time there had been growing in the Province an agitation for some supervision of the issue of municipal debentures and the sale of shares of the various Joint Stock Companies. In the session of 1915 legislation was passed creating the Board of Public Utility Commissioners, with very wide powers over these and other matters, in regulating the actions of municipal and public service corporations.

The party truce of 1914 began to disappear in the session of 1916. Mr. Edward Mitchener, supported by eager and able lieutenants, particularly Mr. T. M. Tweedie, Mr. A. F. Ewing and Dr. G. D. Stanley, led a vigorous opposition against the Government, but without avail. The administration of the Liquor Act by the Attorney-General's Department was specially singled out for attack this session by Dr. Stanley of High River. A Royal Commission was asked for to investigate charges in which it was alleged that the agents of the Government had collected funds from the licensees of hotels for election purposes; that the licensees of hotels had paid large sums to the agents of the Attorney-General, in order to escape prosecutions under the Liquor Act; and also had obtained concessions in connection with liquor licenses. The Government offered to have these charges investigated by the Public Accounts Committee, and pledged that if sufficient evidence was found it would order a judicial enquiry. With respect to the charges of stifling prosecutions, Premier Sifton challenged the Opposition to commence criminal proceedings in the Courts and all expenses of the prosecution would be paid by the Government. He further illuminated the Assembly with the statement that he knew these charges had been in secret circulation a year before and were being used by some of the hotelkeepers as a threat to deter the Government from passing a prohibitory law.

The construction of the Edmonton, Dunvegan and British Columbia Railway and of the Alberta and Great Waterways Railway were other matters that the Opposition wanted investigated by a Royal Commission. A resolution to this effect was introduced April 17th by Dr. T. H. Blow, of Calgary. This was the first of a yearly phillipic against the railway policy of the Government by this indefatigable member, until he left the Legislature in 1921. Another resolution asked for the investigation of the conduct of four ministers for alleged interference with the regular

administration of justice in dismissing a certain Justice of the Peace and releasing certain prisoners. The ministers were able to refute these charges very easily and both resolutions were defeated. Then Mr. R. E. Campbell, of Rocky Mountain, proposed a vote of censure against Premier Sifton for permitting alleged payment of unfair wages and bad treatment by the contractors of the Alberta and Great Waterways Railway respecting employees on this railroad. In these debates, the bitterest heard in the Assembly since the Alberta and Great Waterways affair in 1910, the defence of the Government fell mainly on Premier Sifton, who displayed a courage and resourcefulness that won him the solid and enthusiastic support of every Liberal member in the Assembly.

It is questionable if men of more parliamentary experience would have followed the same course as the members of the Opposition did that session. But it may be taken as the first wholesome sign that parliamentary government was developing in the Legislature. Under British practice the party system is necessary and vigorous, fearless opposition is as indispensable for good government as a strong cabinet backed up by a safe majority.

The Sale of Intoxicating Liquors Act was passed without discussion, almost without a comment, except that Premier Sifton said that it would be enforced. This Act carried out the terms of the petition of the prohibitionists, endorsed by the plebiscite of the previous year. It abolished the sale of intoxicating liquors as beverages, and provided for the sale of such by Government Vendors under the certificate of a medical practitioner. Equally unanimous were the passing of the Equal Suffrage Act, the first in Canada, the only dissentient in the Assembly being Mr. Lucien Boudreau, the member for St. Albert, a strong French-Canadian riding, and an Act for the Relief of Volunteers and Reservists, which provided a moratorium for all who had enlisted for service in the war. The effect of the war was apparent in the shortage of teachers, over six hundred having enlisted. The fear of alien outrages led the Government to insure the Parliament Buildings against such risks, with Lloyd's, for \$2,000,000.

In the session of 1917 the Opposition increased their determination to fight the Government and its policies. The debate on the address was the longest before or since that time. A series of resolutions condemning the Government's administration of railways, telephones, the Civil Service and other matters were submitted by the Opposition, and defeated by the Government's supporters. These debates brought out the strength of both parties and served as fine political propaganda for the elections, which took place on June 17th, shortly after the prorogation of the Assembly.

By this time several members of the Assembly were overseas with the Canadian Expeditionary Forces, viz.: Brigadier-General J. S. Stewart, C. M. G., D. S. O., of Lethbridge, Commanding 3rd Canadian Artillery Division; Major C. S. Pingle, Redcliffe; Major R. B. Eaton, Hand Hills;

Captain R. E. Campbell, Rocky Mountain; Lieutenant F. A. Walker, Victoria; Lieutenant G. E. L. Hudson, Wainwright; Lieutenant J. E. Stauffer, Didsbury; Pte. Gordon Macdonald, Pembina.

The Legislature recognized the patriotism and services of these members by passing a Special Act electing them again to the new Legislature elected June 17th of that year.

Provision was also made by a Special Act for the representation of the Soldiers and Nursing Sisters of Alberta for electing two members at large. The result of the elections was the return of thirty-three Liberals, nineteen Conservatives, two representatives of the Non-Partisan League (Mrs. L. C. McKinney, Claresholm, and James Weir, Nanton), and Captain Robert Pearson and Nursing Sister Roberta McAdams, representing the soldiers and nursing sisters overseas. Mrs. McKinney and Miss McAdams were the first women ever elected to a Canadian or British Assembly. The Legislature now had fifty-eight members, compared to forty-one in 1909, and twenty-five in 1905.

After the election the stress of the war overshadowed Provincial affairs. The absolute necessity of maintaining the Canadian Divisions in France up to strength precipitated the Conscription issue and led to the formation of the Union Government for Canada.

Premier Sifton had been from the beginning an ardent advocate of a vigorous prosecution of the war and desired to subordinate everything to secure a successful termination. The prospect of a bitter party campaign throughout the Dominion of Canada and the consequences of a strictly party enforcement of Conscription, induced Alberta's premier to join the Union Government. He was succeeded by Hon. Charles Stewart, a member of the Assembly since 1909, and of the Ministry since 1913. The vacancy thus created was filled by the appointment of Hon. G. P. Smith, member for Camrose since 1909 to the Portfolio of Provincial Secretary.

The Stewart Ministry was sworn in on October 16th as follows: Premier, President of the Council and Minister of Railways and Telephones, Hon. Charles Stewart; Minister of Public Works, Hon. A. J. McLean; Minister of Education, Hon. J. R. Boyle; Minister of Agriculture, Hon. Duncan Marshall; Attorney-General, Hon. C. W. Cross; Minister of Municipal Affairs, Hon. Wilfred Gariepy; Provincial Treasurer, Hon. C. R. Mitchell; Provincial Secretary, Hon. G. P. Smith.

Two Alberta vacancies in the Senate were filled before the end of the year by the acceptance of these honors by Mr. Edward Mitchener, leader of the Opposition in the Assembly, and by Mr. W. J. Harmer, Deputy Minister of Railways and Telephones for Alberta. A notable event of the year was the establishment and organization of the Alberta Provincial Police to take the place of the Royal North West Mounted Police.

There was little political controversy in Provincial affairs in 1918. Alberta, in common with the rest of the Dominion, was making supreme

effort to win the war. The Province gave liberally to the Patriotic and Red Cross Funds, and assisted in the reestablishment of Returned Soldiers. Mr. George Hoadley was elected Leader of the Opposition by a caucus of the Conservative members a few days after the opening of the Legislature. Many of the members from overseas were in attendance this session, but the House deeply grieved the death in action of Lieutenant J. E. Stauffer. An important Act of the session was the Hospitals Act, which provided for the formation of Hospital Districts and the establishment of hospitals therein, supported by local taxation. The Supreme Court of Alberta rendered an important judgment relating to the law of divorce in Alberta. The judgment established the competency of Alberta Supreme Court to grant divorces on the ground that the Matrimonial Causes Act, passed by the British Parliament in 1857, was in force in Alberta by virtue of the North West Territories Act, which enacted that the laws of England as they existed prior to July 15th, 1870, should be in force in the North West Territories until the same were repealed or altered by proper authority.

Cabinet changes occurred on the dismissal of Attorney-General Cross on August 22nd, by Premier Stewart, and the elevation of Hon. A. G. Mackay to a seat in the Cabinet. Hon. J. R. Boyle was appointed Attorney-General, Hon. A. G. Mackay became Minister of Municipal Affairs and Public Health. Hon. G. P. Smith was transferred to the Department of Education, and Hon. Wilfred Gariepy accepted the office of Provincial Secretary. On September 25th Mr. Gariepy resigned and Hon. Jean Côté, member for Grouard, was appointed in his place. A bye-election in Red Deer constituency to fill the vacancy caused by the elevation of Mr. Edward Michener to the Senate resulted in the return of Mr. J. J. Gaetz, a Liberal, against Mr. F. W. Galbraith, independent Liberal, but described by his opponent as a Unionist.

The year 1919, possibly as a result of relief from the strain of the war, witnessed important political developments. The farmers made up their minds to fight the old political parties and formed the United Farmers of Alberta Political Association as the announcement of its formation ran "to supervise political organization in Federal and Provincial constituencies." The Liberal party held a Convention in Calgary, declaring a stand against continuance of a Coalition Government after the conclusion of the war, and adopted a clear-cut party platform. At the opening of the session of the Legislature, Mr. James Ramsey, Junior member for Edmonton, was elected leader of the Opposition by the Conservative members of the Assembly. The strength of the Farmer Movement revealed itself in the constituency of Cochrane held November 3rd, when Mr. Alex. Moore, the Farmer candidate, easily won the election against the best efforts of the Liberal organization—a premonition of the startling success of the Farmer Party in the next general elections.

In the session of 1920 C. S. Pingle, member for Redcliff, was elected

Speaker of the Assembly, and Mr. A. F. Ewing, senior member for Edmonton, leader of the Opposition.

The financial difficulties of the Edmonton, Dunvegan and British Columbia Railway and the Alberta and Great Waterways Railway gave serious concern to the Government. During the session \$1,000,000 had been voted by the Assembly for the Edmonton, Dunvegan and British Columbia Railway and \$100,000 for the Alberta and Great Waterways Railway. Finally the Government was forced to assume control of both railways, after the refusal of the Federal Government to take them over and incorporate them in the National System. Arrangements were completed with the Canadian Pacific Railway Company in July to operate the Edmonton, Dunvegan and British Columbia Railway under lease for five years and a company was organized for this purpose, Mr. D. C. Coleman, of the Canadian Pacific Railway, President, and Mr. J. A. Macgregor, an able Canadian Pacific Railway Superintendent, as General Manager. It was decided by the Government to operate the Alberta and Great Waterways Railway as a Government railway.

The complex and unsatisfactory financial state of many of the municipalities in the Province compelled the Government in the session of 1920 to provide for the appointment of several special bodies to adjust matters of municipal finance, and assessment. The most important of these was the Municipal Finances Commission, composed of Honourable Justices Harvey, Beck and Hyndman of the Supreme Court of Alberta, and Mr. H. M. E. Evans, of Edmonton. An Assessment Equalization Board, composed of J. H. Lamb, Deputy Minister of Municipalities, W. J. Jackman, Secretary of Rural Municipalities, investigated assessment policies of the municipalities and reduced them to a basis of reasonable uniformity.

The Government renewed its demand upon the Federal Government for the transfer of the Crown lands, minerals and royalties within the Province to the Province on a different basis to that of previous demands. By the terms of the demand of 1920 the Government of Alberta was willing to pay back to the Dominion of Canada the monies received in lieu of lands if a proper accounting were made of the various revenues taken from the Crown lands of the Province since 1905 by the Dominion of Canada, and if the same were paid over to the Province of Alberta.

Hon. A. G. Mackay died on April 24th, deeply lamented by the Assembly and country. Hon. C. R. Mitchell took charge of the Department of Municipal Affairs and of Public Health, which he administered until the defeat of the Government the following year.

The political activities of the United Farmers continued with growing vigor and numbers. The membership increased from 18,135 in 1918 to 33,000 in 1921, and although the United Farmers of Alberta Political Association was disbanded at the Annual Convention in 1920 it did not halt or disorganize the plans of the United Farmers to obtain political control of the Province. The United Farm Women's Association, under

Mrs. Marion L. Sears, who had succeeded Mrs. Walter Parlby in the Presidency, was potent in rallying the women electors to the support of the Farmers' cause. The precipitous fall of the price of farm products, the Young-Fordney tariff, which excluded Canadian cattle from the United States market, caused just discontent among all classes of farmers. A conviction voiced by Mr. H. W. Woods, President of the United Farmers of Alberta in the words: "Agriculture has not been fostered to a degree commensurate with its rational importance" steadily grew stronger. At the Annual Convention of 1921 a Provincial political platform was adopted and it was resolved to contest every rural constituency in the next elections with Farmer candidates. The elections followed, July 17th. The distinctive features of the election were the absence of criticism of the Government's policy by the Farmer candidates and the precision and power of the Farmer organization. The result was thirty-nine Farmers, fourteen Liberals, four Labor, three Independents, one Conservative.

On the 26th of July, a Convention of the Farmer members-elect was held in Calgary to choose a leader. The choice fell upon Mr. Herbert Greenfield. Mr. Greenfield was not a candidate. He was a prominent member of the Executive of the United Farmers of Alberta. The Stewart Ministry held office until the Greenfield Ministry was formed. On August 13th Premier Greenfield announced his Cabinet as follows: President of the Council, Provincial Treasurer, and Provincial Secretary, Hon. Herbert Greenfield; Attorney-General, Hon. J. E. Brownlee; Minister of Agriculture, Hon. George Hoadley; Minister of Municipal Affairs and of Public Health, Hon. R. G. Reid; Minister of Education, Hon. Perrin Baker; Minister of Railways and Telephones, Hon. Vernon W. Smith; Minister of Public Works, Hon. Alex. Ross (Labor); Minister without Portfolio, Hon. Mrs. Walter Parlby.

CHAPTER IX.

AUTONOMY, THE ALBERTA ACT AND THE CONSTITUTION.

During the session of 1905 Sir Wilfred Laurier introduced the Alberta and Saskatchewan Acts into the House of Commons. The granting of autonomy to the North West Territories involved four questions, viz.:

- (1) How many provinces could be formed out of the Territories?
- (2) The ownership of the public lands.
- (3) The financial terms.
- (4) The school system.

These questions were decided as follows:

(1) Two provinces were formed and the boundaries extended to the 60th line of north latitude, considerably beyond the northern boundaries of the original districts of Athabasca and Saskatchewan.

(2) All Crown lands, mines and minerals and royalties incident thereto, and the interest of the Crown in the waters within the provinces were continued in the Crown and are administered by the Government of Canada for the purposes of Canada.

(3) In determining the financial terms Section 118 of the B. N. A. Act was followed as closely as the circumstances would permit. The annual subsidy was made up as follows:

- | | |
|---|----------|
| (a) Government and Legislature | \$50,000 |
| (b) On an estimated population of 250,000 for Alberta | |
| at 80 cents per head..... | 200,000 |

A census of the province was to be taken every five years and the allowance of 80 cents per head paid on the increased population until it should reach 800,000 souls.

(c) In as much as the province had no debt the annual sum of \$405,375 was granted.

To understand this we must know the terms in this respect upon which the four original provinces entered Confederation. The Dominion assumed the debt of the provinces viz., \$62,500,000 for Upper and Lower Canada, \$7,000,000 for New Brunswick, \$8,000,000 for Nova Scotia. These debts were not paid. But the Dominion agreed to pay the interest to the provinces which therefore represented so much capital. When the new provinces Alberta and Saskatchewan and Manitoba entered Confederation without any debt, they were entitled to the same per capita debt allowance as the older provinces as adjusted from time to time until 1905.

On that basis Alberta and Saskatchewan were credited with the sum of \$8,107,500 upon which the annual interest is computed at 5%.

(d) In as much as the public lands were reserved to Canada the province was paid the following sum in lieu of lands:

For a population of 250,000 the sum of -----	\$375,000
When the people increased to 400,000 the sum of -----	562,500
When the people increased to 800,000 the sum of -----	750,000
When the people increased to 1,200,000 and thereafter the sum of -----	1,125,000

(e) An additional allowance of \$93,750 was given for five years for public buildings.

In 1906 a conference of the premiers of the various provinces of Canada was held in Ottawa to discuss the financial relations of the Dominion to the various provinces of Canada. The result was that an address from the Parliament of Canada was presented to the Imperial Parliament praying for amendments to the B. N. A. Act to give effect to the new financial terms decided upon at the premiers' conference. Those amendments became law July 1st, 1907. The annual subsidy to Alberta was increased and remains in force at the present time. It is made up as follows:

(1) A fixed grant for Government and Legislature.

(a) For population up to 400,000 persons -----	\$180,000
(b) For population up to 800,000 persons -----	190,000
(c) For population up to 1,500,000 persons -----	220,000
(d) For population up to 1,500,000 persons -----	240,000

(2) Per capita subsidy, 80 cents per head shall be paid until the population reaches 2,500,000 and at the rate of 60 cents per head of so much of the population as exceeds that number.

(3) The subsidies in respect to lands and public debt were left as set forth in the Alberta Act.

(4) *The School System:*

The powers of the province respecting education are contained in section 17 of the Alberta Act, viz.,

Section 93 of the British North America Act 1867 shall apply to the said province with the substitution for paragraph one of the said section 93 of the following paragraph:

"Nothing in any such law shall prejudicially affect any right or privilege with respect to separate schools which any class of persons have at the date of the passing of this Act, under the terms of the chapters 29 and 30 of the Ordinances of the North West Territories, passed in the year 1901, or with respect to religious instruction in any public or separate school as provided for in the said Ordinances."

The Constitution:

The Constitution of the Province of Alberta exists in different forms, viz.,



Jackson Block and Bank of Commerce



Dominion Bank



Imperial Bank of Canada
BANKS OF EDMONTON

(1) The rigid form as expressed in the B. N. A. Acts and the Alberta Act of 1905, commonly known as the Autonomy Act. This part of the Constitution is imposed on this province by the higher authority of the Imperial Parliament of Great Britain and of the Parliament of Canada. It can not be amended by the Legislature of the Province and any change necessary must be made by the higher parliaments.

(2) The Constitution exists also in definite and flexible form. This part is created by the people of the province itself and is expressed in the various Acts of the legislature passed since 1905; in the laws of the North West Territories continued in force at the time of the creation of the province and not since repealed; and in the laws of England in force July 15th, 1870 except in so far as such laws have been altered or repealed by the Ordinances of the North West Territories or by the Acts of the said province. It lies within the power of the legislature to change such laws as necessity and the growth of the county require provided they apply to the class of subjects assigned to the province by S. 92. B. N. A. Act.

(3) The Constitution exists further in unwritten forms as expressed in the usages and incidents of British Parliamentary practice, as are found for example in the commissions issued to the lieutenant-governor on assuming office and the various conventions that govern his relations with his responsible executive on the one hand and the Governor General of Canada from whom he received his appointment on the other.

By virtue of the power vested in the Parliament of Canada by the B. N. A. Act of 1871, the Federal Parliament passed the Alberta Act creating the new province of the same name. By the terms of this Act the B. N. A. Acts 1867-1886 are made to apply to Alberta in the same way and the like extent as they apply to the older provinces of Canada as if Alberta had been originally included in Confederation, except in so far as they varied by the Autonomy Act and such provisions as are in terms made or by reasonable intendment apply to one or more provinces and not to the whole of the provinces of the Dominion. These variations affect two classes of subjects mentioned previously, viz., education and public lands.

Legislative Power:

Except, therefore, in the instances referred to in the preceding paragraphs the Constitution of Alberta is identical to those of the older provinces. Like these provinces it has surrendered to the federal parliament the exclusive right to make laws for the peace, order and good government of Canada in relation to all matters not coming within the classes of subjects assigned by Section 92 of the B. N. A. Act exclusively to the Legislature of the province, that is to say "All matters of a merely local nature or private nature in the province." Within the limits of these delegated powers however, the legislature has absolute authority. "Where there

is jurisdiction the will of the legislature is omnipotent, according to British theory, and knows no superior law."

Concurrent powers of legislation are conferred upon the Dominion Parliament and provincial legislature in relation to agriculture and immigration, but no provincial Act on these subjects may be repugnant to any Dominion law on the same subject.

Legislative authority is vested in the Lieutenant-Governor and the legislative assembly. All acts are enacted in the name of "His Majesty by and with the advice and consent of the legislative assembly." In relation to assent to bills, disallowance of acts, and signification of pleasure of bills reserved, the Lieutenant-Governor represents the Crown with respect to the province in the same manner in which the Governor General represents the Dominion. No bill passed by the Legislature becomes law until it has received the assent of the Lieutenant-Governor. At the conclusion of a session of the legislature the Lieutenant-Governor goes in state to the legislature. The clerk of the legislature reads the list of bills passed, to which His Honour, seated on the Speaker's Chair, assents, whereupon the clerk announces to the members assembled in their places, "In His Majesty's name His Honour the Lieutenant-Governor doth assent to these bills." It often happens, however, that in case of public necessity the Lieutenant Governor gives his assent to a bill as soon as it is passed by the Assembly.

At the conclusion of each session of the legislature the Lieutenant-Governor transmits two copies of every Act passed during that session to the Secretary of State for Canada. One of these is in turn transmitted to the Colonial Office. Thus it will be seen that the federal government exercises a residuary control over all provincial legislation.

Legislation passed by the Assembly is of two kinds, viz.: public and private legislation. Private bills are distinguished from public bills in that they relate directly to the affairs of private individuals or of corporate bodies, and not to matters of public policy. They must originate by petition and be subject to special rules such as payment of fees and due advertisement in the official gazette and newspapers of the province. Public bills represent the policy of the Executive, and unless the Executive is able to command a majority of the members of the legislature in support thereof, they forfeit the confidence of the Lieutenant-Governor and must resign or ask for an appeal to the electors. The initiation of public legislation is one of the responsible duties of the Executive or Cabinet but it is not lawful for the Executive or the legislature to adopt, or pass any vote, resolution or address for the appropriation of the public revenue to any purpose unless it has been recommended by a message from the Lieutenant-Governor.

By Sec. 91. B. N. A. Act the legislature is empowered to alter its constitution except as it affects the office of the Lieutenant-Governor. The legislature of the province began with 25 members. This number was in-

creased after the quinquennial census of 1906 to 41, and now is 58 including 2 members representing the overseas men and women. Representation is increased on the basis of population as shown by the Dominion Census. Those entitled to vote at provincial elections are British subjects by birth or naturalization, and who have resided at least twelve months in the electoral division in which they desire to vote.

Executive Power:

The executive power is vested in the Lieutenant-Governor but by the instructions of his commission he is guided by the constitutional principles and precedents which obtain in every British state where parliamentary government is established. Upon him lies the duty of forming a responsible executive council to administer the public business. At the same time he is enjoined to maintain a position of dignified impartiality and to guard the interests of the Dominion as well as those of the province. He holds office during the pleasure of the Governor General but is not removable within five years from the time of his appointment except for cause. In this way it will be seen that the federal government has a residuary executive or administrative control over the provinces in that it has power to change the executive head of the province.

Not being directly nominated by the Sovereign the Lieutenant-Governor is not entrusted with the personal prerogatives of mercy and honor attaching to those governors by commission from the King, but at the opening and closing of the provincial legislature, the celebration of His Majesty's birthday, or holding a levee, he is regarded as acting directly on behalf of His Majesty. In short he represents the monarchical element so characteristic of our British system.

The executive council is chosen from the members of the legislature and is entrusted with the conduct of the public business as long as it holds the confidence of that body. For the better expedition of the public business the affairs of government are organized into departments. One of the first Acts of the first legislative Assembly of Alberta was to pass the Public Service Act creating the several departments as follows:

- (1) Office of the Executive Council.
- (2) Department of the Attorney-General.
- (3) Department of Provincial Secretary.
- (4) Department of Treasury.
- (5) Department of Public Works.
- (6) Department of Agriculture.
- (7) Department of Education.
- (8) Offices of Legislative Assembly.

At first the ministers administered more than one department but the rapid development that has taken place in recent years has increased the

work of the several departments to such an extent that each is administered at the present time by one member of the Executive. Since the organization of the province in 1905 new departments have been created as follows:

Department of Railways and Telephones, (1912)

Department of Municipal Affairs, (1912)

Department of Public Health, (1919)

Treasury Department:

(1) The treasury department is under the direction of a member of the Executive Council, the Provincial Treasurer. He has the management and control of the revenue and expenditure of the province. All revenues, excepting certain funds, form the consolidated revenue fund, the expenditure of which is subject to audit, legislative review and vote. All accounts must pass the Provincial Auditor, an officer removable only on address to the Assembly.

(2) The provincial revenue is derived from three sources, viz.,

(1) Dominion subsidies.

(2) School lands.

(3) Provincial taxes.

(3) The fiscal year closes on December 31st. As soon as practicable after the close of each fiscal year a detailed and complete statement of the public accounts for that period must be prepared by the Provincial Treasurer showing the state of the general revenue fund, the trust and special funds and all matters requisite to explain the financial transactions of the province.

Estimates of the expenditure are generally for the period of one fiscal year. No petition for any sum relating to the public service, not any motion for a grant or charge whether payable out of the consolidated revenue fund or other moneys provided by legislature is ever received or proceeded with unless recommended from the Lieutenant-Governor, or theoretically the Crown.

Department of Education:

This department controls public schools, normal training schools and universities within the province. With regard to education the province controls absolutely the program of studies followed in the public schools, the normal school, and through the Board of Governors, the curriculum and administration of the Provincial University. Through inspectors the department supervises the course of studies, the methods of the teachers who are employed by the local school boards and determines the amount of provincial grant that is due to each school.

Department of Public Works:

As the name implies the minister of this department controls the construction and maintenance of all public works in the province, issues surveys, maps and plans, road allowances, ferries and all public property. He has charge of the provincial institutions such as Asylums and gaols.

Department of the Attorney-General:

This department is presided over by a member of the Executive Council, the attorney-general. He is the general agent of the Crown. To him belongs the supervision of the administration of justice within the province, and the administration of public affairs according to law.

He is charged with the conduct of the following matters among numerous others:

- (a) The law governing the sale of intoxicating liquors.
- (b) Titles to real property in the province.
- (c) Appointment of sheriffs, registrars, judicial officers, justices of the peace, coroners, notaries public and commissioners for taking affidavits.
- (d) Hearing applications for the granting of fiats regarding petitions of right, criminal informations, indictments, actions to set aside crown patents, actions to recover fines and penalties.
- (e) The appointment of counsel for the conduct of criminal business.
- (f) The supervision of the officers of the courts of law in the province.
- (g) The examination of papers in connection with the admission and discharge of lunatics, etc.

Provincial Secretary's Department:

The Provincial Secretary is a member of the Executive Council. He is the keeper of the seal of the province, issues all letters patent, commissions and other documents under the seal of the province and countersigns the same. He is the keeper of all the registers and archives of the province.

Department of Agriculture:

This department is presided over by the Minister of Agriculture, a member of the Executive. He has charge of agriculture statistics. This department collects statistics relating to agriculture and manufacturing, and disseminates the same to promote the progress of the province and sees to the observance and execution of the law relating to statistics and agriculture. The Minister of Agriculture has charge of the Demonstration farms and schools of agriculture.

Reports of the work done in the various departments and branches

thereof are annually prepared and laid upon the table of the legislative assembly and printed for distribution.

Department of Municipal Affairs:

The Minister of Municipal Affairs is a member of the Executive Council and is responsible to the legislature for the administration of the municipal institutions of the province. He has power to make regulations governing the methods of bookkeeping, accounting and auditing in the municipalities of the province, and to make and enforce such regulations as shall conduce to a systematic and uniform conduct of the affairs thereof. For this purpose inspectors regularly visit the officials of the municipalities and report to the Department.

The Minister of Municipal Affairs is charged with the duties under the Local Improvement Act, the Village Act and the Education Tax Act. Under the Education Tax Act all lands in every municipality except lands included in school districts are taxed one and a quarter cents for the benefit of education. The taxes are paid into the Consolidated Revenue Fund of the province.

Department of Railways and Telephones:

The Minister of Railways and Telephones is a member of the Executive Council. He is entrusted with all the powers and charged with all the duties created by the Railway Act of Alberta 1907 and the Act respecting the government of telephone and telegraph systems.

Department of Public Health:

The Minister of Public Health is a member of the Executive Council and has the administration and control of the department and all the acts relating to public nurses, hospitals, diseases and vital statistics. It is his duty to institute inquiries, collect facts and statistics relating to the above matters and issue regulations for their due execution and observance.

The Legislative Assembly:

The chief officers of the legislative assembly are the Speaker, and the clerk of the House. The Speaker presides over "the deliberations of the House and enforces the observance of all rules for preserving order in its proceedings." He puts every question and declares the determination of the House. As "Mouth of the house" he communicates its resolutions to others, conveys its thanks, expresses its censure, its reprimands or admonitions. He is in fact the representative of the House itself in all its powers, proceedings and dignity.

The clerk of the Assembly makes true entries, remembrances and journals of things done and passed in the House. He signs the addresses, votes of thanks and orders of the house. He endorses the bills sent to the Lieutenant-Governor. He has the custody of all the records or other documents of the House and is responsible for the conduct of the business of the House in the official department under his control. He assists the Speaker and advises members in regard to questions of order and the proceedings of the House.

During the recess he publishes in each issue of the Alberta Gazette rules respecting notices of intended applications of private bills and fixes the date for receiving private bills after the proclamation convening the Assembly has been published.

The law clerk prepares a report upon all private bills after their second reading and before the same are submitted to the committee charged with the consideration thereof. In the subsequent stage of such bills he is responsible for such bills should they be amended.

Local Government:

Among the powers exclusively assigned to the legislatures of the provinces is the right of each province to create and establish municipal institutions within the respective provinces. This right Alberta and Saskatchewan enjoy in common with the rest. The various local bodies created and established in Alberta are as follows: Cities, towns, rural municipalities, villages and local improvement districts. Cities are incorporated by special charters granted by the legislature. Their powers are strictly limited by the express terms of their respective charters and depend largely upon the demands of the citizens of each place for the municipal functions they desire to exercise. Of course the legislature can not grant these municipal corporations power inconsistent with the constitution nor delegate any power it does not itself possess.

All towns in Alberta are incorporated and organized under the Towns' Act 1912. Both towns and cities are empowered to pass by-laws within the powers delegated, and generally to enact such legislation as will promote the welfare of their communal life. Town councils consist of a mayor and six councillors elected by a general vote of the electors including women if they are property owners. Money by-laws in towns and cities are referred to the property owners or burgesses before the councils have power to borrow money, issue bonds or debentures.

Villages may be erected in communities where there are at least 25 dwellings within an area of 640 acres. Rates are limited to ten mills on the dollars of the assessed value of property. The village council consists of three members elected by the owners or occupiers of rateable land within the village.

The borrowing powers of all municipal bodies are limited to a fraction

of the assessment or the total taxes by the terms of the Act or special charter.

Rural Municipalities:

Rural municipalities were established in Alberta in 1912. Each municipality comprises nine townships or an area 18 miles square and must have a population of not less than one person per square mile. At the present time it is optional with the people of these districts to form themselves into a municipality under the Act. The chairman of the rural council is called a reeve. The council has power to make by-laws relating to matters of merely local concern such as roads, bridges, public health, wolf bounties, hospitals, cemeteries, prairie fires, noxious weeds, and to raise money on the credit of the municipality as specified by the Act. Taxes are levied upon all rateable lands in the municipality and the rate must be uniform. The maximum is placed at one per cent of the assessment of the preceding year.

Local Districts:

In the newer parts of the province municipal organization is expressed in local improvement districts. These are constituted by Order in Council upon petition and vary in size according to circumstances usually from 108 square miles to 216 square miles. The council consists of from three to six members and has power to impose taxes upon all rateable lands in the district but the rate is fixed within a minimum of one-and-a-quarter cents and a maximum of five cents per acre.

The Judiciary and Administration of Justice:

The judicial power of the province is vested in a number of courts as follows:

- (a) A court of superior civil and criminal jurisdiction, viz., The Supreme Court of Alberta.
- (b) Minor courts of civil and criminal jurisdiction, viz., The District Court of each judicial district.
- (c) Police magistrate courts in towns and cities and the courts of the justices of the peace.

The supreme court consists of two divisions, Appellate and Trial, each presided over by a chief justice and eight puisne judges appointed by the Dominion Government. They cannot be removed from office except on an address from both houses of parliament.

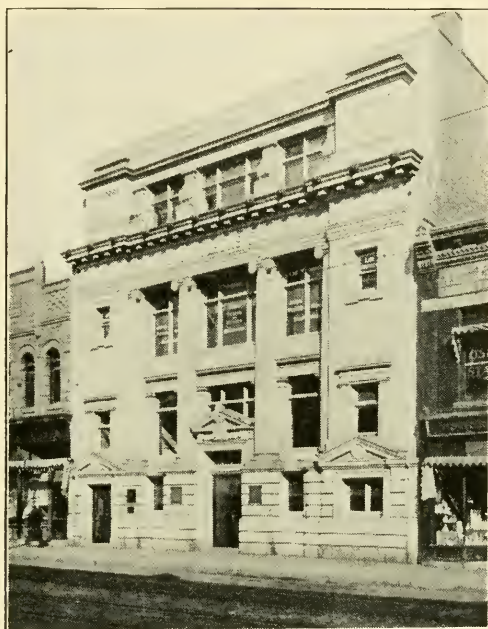
The province is divided into a number of judicial districts viz., Acadia, Athabasca, Edmonton, Lethbridge, Wetaskiwin, Calgary, Macleod, Medicine Hat, Red Deer, Stettler. Each district has a court presided over by



Merchants Bank of Canada



Canadian Bank of Commerce



Molsons Bank



Bank of Toronto



Standard Bank of Canada

BANKS OF CALGARY

a judge, a clerk, and where necessary an additional judge and clerks. Regular sittings of the district court are fixed by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, but the judge may hold additional sittings without a jury.

District courts have full jurisdiction in all matters which may be made the subject of a claim for relief, or enforce a right, legal or equitable where such claim, debt or damage does not exceed \$600.

District courts have power to grant probate of wills, letters of administration, and pass accounts of executors and administrators, to make orders for the division of the disposition of the property of the testator or intestate in relation to the estate and effects of persons dying within the limits of the court.

With respect to claims under \$100 in the District Court there is a small debt procedure providing for the summary recovery of small debts through the clerk of the court.

The district court is also a court of record for the trial without a jury of any person charged with certain criminal offences, provided the person so charged consents.

In order to facilitate speedy trial of actions at law numerous sittings of the District Court are held in each judicial district. At the present time court is held at least four times a year. At the beginning of each year the Lieutenant-Governor in Council fixes the dates and places for the ensuing year.

The police magistrates and justices of the peace are appointed by the lieutenant-governor in council. The proceedings before these officers are governed by the Criminal Code of Canada. They conduct preliminary trials for criminal offenses and are compelled to make complete returns of all convictions annually to the attorney-general.

With the exception of a small force of police maintained by the municipalities of the cities and larger towns, the task of maintaining order and the King's peace falls upon the Alberta Provincial Police and the Royal Canadian Police, the latter being a force in which the officers are magistrates and the rank and file constables. Detachments of these forces are stationed at various points in the province and regular patrols extending to the remotest corners of the province are enforced.

Appeals:

Appeals subject to certain rules of court from the decisions of the District or Supreme Courts are heard by the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court of Alberta. This court has within its jurisdiction all the powers which are inherent in any divisional court of the Supreme Court of Appeal of England.

In 1920 an Appellate division of the Supreme Court of Alberta was formed as well as a Trial division. Previous to that time appeals were

heard by the Court en Banc, that is, all the judges of the Supreme Court, except the Trial Judge of the action, sat in appeal.

Appeals from the decisions of the Appellate division may be taken to either the Supreme Court of Canada, or directly to the Privy Council of the British Empire, or to both in the order named.

Historical:

The first Territorial Judiciary was established in pursuance of Chapter 35 of the Statutes of Canada, 1873, respecting the administration of justice and establishment of a police force for the North West Territories.

Provision was made for the appointment of stipendiary magistrates holding office during pleasure with a limited jurisdiction defined by the Act. Increased jurisdiction to deal with offences for which the maximum punishment did not exceed seven years' imprisonment was vested in the judges of the court of Queen's Bench of the Province of Manitoba, or two stipendiary magistrates sitting as a court. The said causes were triable in the territories in a summary way without the intervention of a jury. Power was given to the justices of the peace and stipendiary magistrates to commit for trial by court of Queen's Bench in Manitoba according to the laws of procedure in force in that province any person charged with the commission of an offence in the Territories punishable by death or imprisonment in the penitentiary.

By this act the North West Mounted Police force constituted any gaols and lock-ups provided for the confinement of prisoners in the custody of the Mounted Police.

By the N. W. T. Act of 1875 provision was made for the more complete administration of justice in the Territories, reserving, however, to a more limited extent, what was formerly the jurisdiction of the Court of Queen's Bench of Manitoba. This latter court was given an appellate jurisdiction in Territorial appeals and for some years that was constituted to be the court of Appeal for the Territories.

By Cap. 7 of the Statutes of Canada for 1877 the foregoing Act was amended in important particulars. The jurisdiction exercisable by the Court of Queen's Bench of Manitoba in Territorial cases was withdrawn and a stipendiary magistrate and a justice of the peace with the intervention of a jury vested with power to try charges where the maximum punishment exceeded seven years' imprisonment. In cases where punishment was death two justices of the peace were associated with the stipendiary magistrate.

By Cap. 25 of the Statutes of Canada, 1880, the N. W. T. Act was again amended and consolidated. The change respecting the administration of justice provided that stipendiary magistrates were to associate with them one justice of the peace, instead of two, to try capital cases. (E. g. Riel's Case.)

Amendments by Cap. 23 of the Statutes of 1884 provided for the first time for appeals from the conviction of justices of the peace to a stipendiary magistrate.

Chapter 25 of the Statutes of Canada, 1886, introduced important and progressive changes. The Territorial court presided over by stipendiary magistrates was superseded by the Supreme Court of the North West Territories. Upon this body were conferred all such powers and authority as by the law of England were incident to a superior court on July 15th 1870. The Act provided for five judges and the division of the Territory into judicial districts. The appellate jurisdiction of the court of Queen's Bench in Manitoba was superseded by the Court En Banc in the Territories sitting as a court of appeal. Three judges formed a quorum.

The system as set forth in the foregoing statements continues without essential change to the present time. When the province was organized in 1905 it became necessary to create a Supreme Court which was done by an Act of the Legislature of 1907. In the same year the district court Act was passed.

The system of procedure is contained in the Civil Justice Ordinance which is moulded after the English judicature Act and that of Ontario. Where procedure or practice is not provided for in this ordinance the English practice applies.

The procedure in criminal cases subject to an Act of the Federal Parliament conforms as nearly as possible to that existing in like cases in England on the 15th of July, 1870, but no grand jury is summoned and the petit jury consists of only six jurors, men or women.

The trial of offenses is commenced by a formal charge in writing, setting forth as in an indictment the offense charged. A jury of six may be had in certain civil cases. Only in serious criminal charges is the accused entitled to a jury. A list of offenses where a jury is precluded is enumerated in the N. W. T. Act. There is no grand jury.

CHAPTER X.

REVIEW OF MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT IN NORTH WEST TERRITORIES AND ALBERTA.

The first local divisions or townships were made by the federal authority under the Dominion Lands Act of 1872. Though unofficial, local organization had been already in existence, following out English custom. Thus the Saskatchewan District Board of Health to deal with the epidemic of smallpox that had broken out at that time. These townships were not for purposes of government but for survey and settlement. Sites for towns and villages were provided for by the Federal Government. The first territorial authority, the North West Council, dealt with all matters municipal and otherwise coming within its scope until municipal ordinances were passed and municipal organization established.

In 1883 the Governor in Council conferred upon the Lieutenant-Governor and the North West Council the power to enact ordinances respecting municipal institutions, subject of course, to any legislation of the Parliament of Canada. In pursuance of this authority the N. W. Council passed the first comprehensive municipal law of the Territories. The Minister of Justice objected to certain taxing powers of the enactment, viz., a clause that enabled a municipality to tax a person occupying Crown property other than in an official capacity. A new Act embodying the amendments suggested by the Privy Council of Canada was passed in 1884 and the one of 1883 repealed. The ordinance provided for the incorporation of towns, cities and other municipalities on a petition of two-thirds of the residents (British subjects over twenty-one years of age, freeholders or householders within the municipality for three months) of the proposed municipality. The area of a rural municipality could not be less than 200 square miles, of a town not less than 320 acres and not more than 2,560 acres. When the population of any town exceeded 2,000 it could be erected into a city. The rural municipality was given power to pass by-laws for the local government of the district, such as raising local revenue, roads, bridges, streets, lighting, abatement of nuisances, drainage, public health and any other matter for the order and good government of the municipality. Notice should be taken that the municipalities were given power to build, own, operate grist mills, elevators and manufacturing establishments. Additional powers were given to towns in order to promote the welfare and good government of these communities.

The ordinance of 1884 was revised and consolidated in 1888, again in

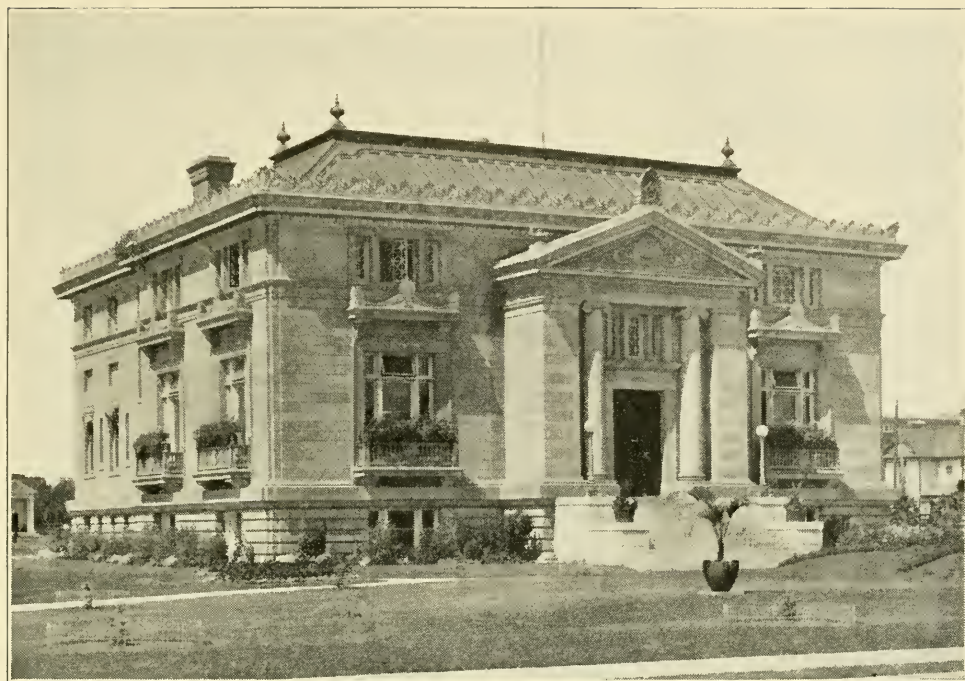
1894 and again in 1897. The revised ordinance of 1897 omitted all reference to cities, leaving them to adopt special legislation suitable to their own circumstances. This principle of municipal organization persists to the present day, although the question of passing a City Charter Act applicable to all cities has engaged the attention of the Alberta Legislature at different times. All the cities of the province are operated under special charters.

The municipalities existing at the time were as follows: Moosomin, Broadview, Wolseley, Indian Head, South Qu'Appelle, Wascana, Moose Jaw, Qu'Appelle, Town of Moose Jaw, Town of Regina, Belle Plain, Pheasant Plains.

The municipal ordinance from this date onward was a subject of frequent legislation, being almost annually repealed and reenacted with amendments to suit the needs of growing communities. By the Ordinance of 1894 rural municipalities of not more than 400 square miles were entitled to elect four councillors and those of more than this area, a reeve and six councillors. The area of towns was limited to 640 acres, but should the population exceed 2,000 then 160 acres might be added to the area for every 1,000 of population over 2,000. If after a census was taken in any town it was found that the population exceeded 5,000 the council might petition the legislature to be erected into a city provided the petition was signed by two-thirds of the resident householders of the town. Increased powers respecting the conduct of elections was granted by this Act.

Assessment and Taxes:

In these ordinances taxes were levied equally upon the whole rateable property, real, personal and income. In 1884 and 1894 the exemption on personal property was \$300.00 and in 1897 this exemption was extended to apply to incomes under \$600.00. The real estate and personal property of railway companies liable to assessment was considered as property of the ratepayers. The rate by the law of 1894 was limited to 2½ cents on the dollar of assessed value of the property. By the same law the principle of the taxation of land values was rendered optional in any municipality on the decision of a two-thirds majority of the members of the Council upon the receipt of a petition of 42 of the ratepayers. The rate in case of the single tax was limited to four cents on the dollar of the actual value of the land without improvements. These features were continued in the new ordinance of 1897 and in the revision of 1905. Both ordinances provided for a poll tax of \$2.00 per year on male adults, not on the assessment roll. In villages the poll tax was \$1.00. Under certain circumstances employers might pay the income and poll tax of employees, deducting the same from their wages. School rates were assessed by the school boards and collected like the other rates of the municipality. The rate was not to exceed twelve mills on the dollar, the minimum rate being two, per year.



PUBLIC LIBRARY, CALGARY



LAND TITLES BUILDING AND COURTHOUSE, CALGARY

Assessment in towns and cities was made yearly. Rural municipalities had the option of making the assessment every three years.

In 1901 the ordinance was amended to provide for the erection of a village into a town, by a two-thirds vote of the ratepayers of the village when the population exceeded 400.

In 1903 provision was made for incorporating towns within the limits of a rural municipality, the area not exceeding 1,280 acres and containing a population of 400. A vote was taken of the ratepayers within the proposed town assessed for \$200 or more and if two-thirds voted in favor of incorporation the Lieutenant-Governor had power to proclaim the town. In this year the exemption on income was raised from \$600 to \$1,000.

Every municipal ordinance contained provisions for guarding against creating too great a debt by borrowing. By the law of 1884 the check upon undue borrowing rested with the Lieutenant-Governor in Council. All by-laws for the creating of a debt not repayable within a year required the assent of the Lieutenant-Governor in Council.

In the ordinances of 1894 and 1897 the check was given to the ratepayers and the amount of the debt fixed by law. The Council was limited in its borrowing to 10% of the assessed value of assessable property and every by-law for borrowing money not repayable within the financial year required the assent of two-thirds of the ratepayers voting on the same. A further restriction was imposed respecting the bonusing of manufacturing, mills, railways or any works of a public nature, or exempting them from taxation for a longer period than one year unless the by-law conferring the same was passed on petition of half the ratepayers and the assent after passing of two-thirds or more of the votes polled upon submission of the same to the electors. A maximum period was fixed for the repayment of such borrowed moneys varying with the nature of the debt created, money for lighting, drainage or water works 30 years; other public works 20 years. In 1897 these restrictions were altered to 20 years for public works except money for subscribing stock in a railway, street railway or bonus to the same, which might run for 40 years.

This was the state of the law when the province of Alberta was formed in 1905 and continued until the legislature of the province began to revise the law in 1911 to meet the growing needs of the municipalities.

Before we continue the subject respecting towns and cities, let us consider the other forms of municipal or local organization met with in the N. W. T. and in our province. The early municipal bodies appear to have been very simple and businesslike in their structure. They were offspring of local conditions rather than copies of older communities. The herd, fire and statute labor districts are good examples. The first form of local organization noticed was the formation of herd districts in 1883. Two-thirds of the male occupants over 21 years of age, resident for 3 months in an area of 144 square miles could, upon application to the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, form that area into a herd district. Pro-

vision was made for a pound-keeper. Other examples of local government were the fire districts. These were formed in 1886. By this ordinance the majority of the residents of three months' residence in a locality might by petition have a fire district formed under a fire guardian. The Lieutenant-Governor appointed the fire guardian and each resident had to pay a rate of \$4.00 per year which might be commuted by labor. Similar provision was made respecting statute labor districts in 1887. The area was 144 sq. miles containing 50 people. The road overseer was elected by the people. Every resident was assessed one day and each farmer as follows: 2 days for 160 acres; 3 days for 160 to 320 acres; 4 days for next 320 acres; 5 days for 1,280 acres; 1 day extra for every additional 640 acres.

The fire and statute labor districts were combined in 1888. Such districts were formed only in unorganized parts of the country. In 1890 every male inhabitant between ages of 18 and 60 was liable for one day under statute labor.

This subject was frequently the occasion for further legislation. In 1893 the law re fire and statute labor districts was revised and consolidated. The area of a district was reduced to a township containing 8 residents. The law was again revised in 1896 and 1897 when provision was made for levying rates in lieu of statute labor days, paying the overseer, collection of fines and making returns to the Commissioner of Public Works. The interesting fact in connection with those institutions is that they evolved in local improvement districts in 1898. These districts suggest a loose comparison with the counties of Eastern Canada.

The district was erected by the Lieutenant Governor in Council where there were at least twelve residents, one resident to three square miles. No district was to comprise more than 72 square miles. The commissioner of Public Works for the Territories supervised in a general way the business of the district,—appointed an auditor, prescribed the form of assessment, taxes and work done. The actual conduct of business, however, was in the hands of an elected council of not more than six and not less than three.

The yearly assessment was as follows:

(1) Every male resident between 18 and 60 years of age not otherwise assessed.

(2) Every owner or occupier of land	\$1.25
(a) Parcels not exceeding 160 acres.....	2.50
(b) Every 40 acres over 160 acres.....	.62½

In 1899 provision was made for large local improvement districts of areas greater than 72 square miles. The rate of assessment was:

(a) Parcels not exceeding 160 acres.....	\$2.00
(b) Every 40 acres above 160 acres50

The overseer in a large Improvement District paid all the taxes to the Territorial Government which were placed to the credit of the district and spent by the Government for the benefit of the district. In later years

the assessment was made by the Local Improvement Branch of the Dept. of Public Works.

In 1903 the whole law re local improvement districts was revised and a new ordinance passed becoming effective Jan. 1st, 1904. The size of a district was changed to comprise not less than 108 and not more than 216 square miles with a population of one resident to three square miles. The ordinance indicates the increased importance of the local improvement district and the larger delegation of municipal powers to the people. It provided for a council of not less than three and not more than six members. The council was empowered to levy the rates limited from $1\frac{1}{4}$ cents to 5 cents per acre upon every occupant or owner. This law with incidental amendments continued until 1907 when the Act was again revised by the Alberta legislature. Each year necessary amendments were made. In 1908 the maximum rate was fixed at $3\frac{1}{8}$ cents per acre in large L. I. D. and in 1913 lands under Dominion Grazing lease were taxed $\frac{3}{4}$ of a cent per acre. In 1917 power was given to the Council to bonus a medical practitioner to the extent of \$500 per year. In 1918 the Local Improvement Act was repealed except as it was applicable to large Local Improvement Districts. In 1919 the rate of assessment was changed to three mills on the dollar.

Unincorporated towns:

The organization of unincorporated towns was effected in 1888 and revised in 1893. By these ordinances an unincorporated town meant any portion of land not within a municipality and not exceeding 320 acres on which not less than 10 dwellings were erected for residence. Upon petition of the majority of the ratepayers of such a place and after certain formal proceedings were taken the Lieutenant-Governor in Council proclaimed the place an unincorporated town. The principal officer of the town was the overseer elected in the usual way. He was entitled to a salary of \$50.00 per year and a sum of $2\frac{1}{2}\%$ on all moneys passing through his hands on account of the district. He was purely an administrative officer and could do nothing which was not authorized by motion passed at a public meeting of the ratepayers and on subjects explicitly stipulated in the ordinance. The assessment could not exceed five mills on the dollar. In 1894 the rate was raised to 10 mills. The overseer could not incur an indebtedness above \$100.00. In 1895 this ordinance was repealed and replaced by the village ordinance which maintained the same machinery but extended the subjects that could be legislated upon by the village meeting. The villages in existence at that time were Saltcoats, Grenfell, Gainsboro, Yorkton, Medicine Hat, Wetaskiwin and Red Deer. In 1897 an amendment to the Village Act provided for the organization of a hamlet which meant a place wherein there were five or more occupied dwellings within an area of half a square mile. Increased powers of taxation

were given to villages to impose a poll tax of \$1.25 on every male person eighteen years not assessed on account of property; also a dog tax of \$1 and \$2. In several other matters the powers of local self government were extended. A complete revision took place again in 1898. The duties of the overseer were increasing for he was then allowed \$100 plus $2\frac{1}{2}\%$ of all moneys passing through his hands. In 1899 the requirement for establishing a village was 15 dwelling houses with an area of 640 acres. In 1900 the single tax principle was optional with all villages. In 1901 the area of a village was enlarged to 1,280 acres. With a minor amendment the ordinance continued in this form until the legislature of Alberta passed a new Village Act in 1907. The area necessary was reduced to 640 acres with 25 dwelling houses. The overseer was replaced by a council of three and large measure of local control was granted to this body. The rate of 10 mills was maintained as the maximum rate of taxation and income from any source was exempt.

The single tax provisions referred to before were dropped from this Act in 1913. A new Act was passed by the legislature in conformity with the important municipal legislation of the previous year and local powers commensurate with conditions as they prevail today were granted to village corporations. By this Act taxes could be levied on land only, assessed at its actual cost value as it would be appraised in payment of a just debt exclusive of the value of the buildings or any other value caused by expenditure of labor or capital thereon. This devotion to single tax idea has not been as successful as the legislature thought it would, nor has such a policy realized the glowing prophecies of the devotees of this method of taxation.

The year 1912 was the beginning of a new era in the history of municipal affairs in Alberta. A special department of the Provincial Government was created to promote municipal organization and superintend municipal administration. The increase in wealth and population of the rural districts, the growing complexity of local affairs and the desire and capability of the people to assume a larger share of local government actuated the government to take this advanced step. Up to this period the municipal machinery for towns and rural districts was provided for in the one Act. Now town organization was to be separated from rural municipal organization. As we have seen, the municipal ordinance of 1897 omitted cities, which from that day to this have been organized by individual charters suited to each. The legislation of 1912 carried the process one step further. Accordingly we have now the Town Act, the Rural Municipal Districts Act, the Village Act and the Improvement Districts Act.

The governing body of a town is the Council of six presided over by a mayor. The single tax method of raising revenue was embodied in this Act as in the case of villages referred to before. Persons qualified to vote are males and females of full age of 21 years who are assessed for \$50 or upward and sons and daughters of such persons, if 21 years of age and

resident in the municipality. The rural municipalities are 18 miles square and numbered from right to left beginning at the southeast corner of the province. Each of these territorial units can be established into a municipal district or a local improvement district as the electors decide. This necessitated the reorganization of all existing local improvement districts and re-establishment in conformity with the new ordinance. Hamlets included within such an area come under the control of the rural council which consists of six councillors one of whom is chosen as reeve. Taxes in rural municipal districts are levied equally upon all rateable land in the same manner as in towns or villages, that is, actual cash value without improvements, but the council may make the assessment according to acreage. In the first year fifty-five rural municipal districts were organized though in many parts of the province the people were afraid of the new found powers of governing themselves.

The system of levying taxes imposed by the municipal legislation now referred to has been revised several times since 1912. Financial embarrassment overtook practically all towns, rural municipalities and villages. This was due to the war and to the sudden depreciation of land values in every municipality. The single tax system had been applied too late. Nobody wanted the land now that rising values would not absorb all tax charges. Tax arrearages were reaching embarrassing proportions, consequently amending legislation was passed in 1916 empowering towns and villages to broaden the basis of taxation to include improvements up to 60% of the actual value.

In 1920 the taxing power of towns and villages was extended to include:

- (a) Tax on all persons carrying on any trade, business or profession.
- (b) Tax on personal property.

Single tax was a failure under prevailing conditions at least and now looks as if it would be consigned to the scrap-heap of the faddist.

Cities:

The first city to be incorporated in Alberta was Calgary in 1893. The city was divided into three wards. Taxes were levied on all rateable property and income. One-third of the personal property of any one assessed was exempt, and income under \$500. Those entitled to vote were persons assessed as owners of real property to value of \$200.00, tenants of real property to value of \$400 and for income of \$400. Lodgers were not classed as tenants and a man living in a house belonging to his wife was assessed as a tenant. There was a poll tax of \$2 for those not assessed. Those entitled to vote on money by-laws were required to be assessed as owners of real property to value of \$400 or more.

Edmonton was incorporated as a city in 1904. The Edmonton Charter provided for city wards, but provided for a change to general vote instead of upon a reference to the burgesses. Those entitled to vote were men, unmarried women and widows of full age who were assessed for \$100 or

upwards. This Charter provided for a division of the executive legislative functions of the council by the employment of permanent commissioners to act in conjunction with the mayor, the chairman of the board of commissioners. This feature was adopted by Calgary in 1908. The councillors were the legislative body and appointed the commissioners by three-quarters vote. Two classes of voters appeared on the lists—burgesses, who alone were entitled to vote on money by-laws, and ordinary voters.

Taxes were levied on: (a) land, site value; (b) income; (c) businesses; (d) special franchises; (e) by a poll tax of \$5 on every person not otherwise liable to taxation.

Incomes under \$1,000 were exempt. Meanwhile Calgary had altered the basis of taxation. The rapid extension of the city and the desire of adjacent subdivisions to join the city, led to many makeshifts from time to time as to the basis of assessment for various classes of property. Some was assessed as agricultural land at \$50 per acre and other portions in the same subdivision used for manufacturing purposes at \$3,000 per acre for ten years beginning 1907 and then at \$5,000 for a further period of five years from 1918. In 1911 the city made an attempt to move towards a land tax system by assessing the land at its actual value, and the buildings and improvements at 50% of their value such assessment to be extinguished at the rate of 10% per year until taxation of improvements was wiped out. This expedient lasted but a year and then buildings and improvements were assessed at their fair actual value. In 1915 the electorate was widened to include all British subjects, male and female, of twenty-one years of age who had resided in the city for six months. The last two changes were made subject to a plebiscite. The frenzied quest for revenue drove the city to impose a business assessment equal to the full annual rental.

The Edmonton Charter was revised and consolidated in 1913. The electoral body was enlarged to include all persons, male and female, of full age of 21 years and British subjects whose names appeared on the assessment roll and also each person who occupied a house and paid or was liable to pay rent. Taxation of incomes and businesses was eliminated in this revision. Rates exclusive of school, debenture and local improvements were limited to 2 cents on the dollar of the assessed value of the property within the city. In 1917 the council was compelled to consider the question of taxation. The depletion of land values, and large amount of taxes due on thousands of vacant city lots left the council no alternative but to include improvements and businesses in the body of taxable property—businesses on a sum equal to the annual rental value, and improvements on 25% valuation. As a temporary measure of relief the charter was amended again to include a tax on incomes for 1918 and 1919. In 1920 a service tax was added instead of the income tax. But such fiscal jugglery proved very unpopular and is now relegated to the limbo of exploded fads.

CHAPTER XI.

THE NORTH WEST MOUNTED POLICE IN ALBERTA.

The reader will have observed that little has been said up to this point relating to Southern Alberta. The reason has been that the bulk of the fur trade was located along the Saskatchewan and the rivers of the north. In the early years of the fur trade, buffalo and wolf skins were not highly prized, and these were the principal commodities of the south, no great attention being paid to the Indian trade in this region of the North West. We have seen that the Hudson's Bay Company were unable to maintain forts in the south and that Old Bow Fort and Chesterfield House were abandoned very soon after amalgamation. Any trade with the Blackfoot nation was done at Edmonton or at Rocky Mountain House and sometimes at Fort Pitt.

After 1860 the settlement of the Western States changed the situation. American traders began to invade the hunting grounds of the Blackfeet which included the whole of Southern Alberta south of the South Saskatchewan and Red Deer Rivers. Large numbers of reckless traders entered the country, did as they pleased, ruined the Indians with whiskey, built strong forts and established a reign of brigandage and murder. Whiskey was traded (to the great advantage of the trader) for buffalo, wolf and other skins. Goods to be exchanged for the fur were brought in without duty and the whole trade was carried on in defiance of the laws of Canada and of the United States.

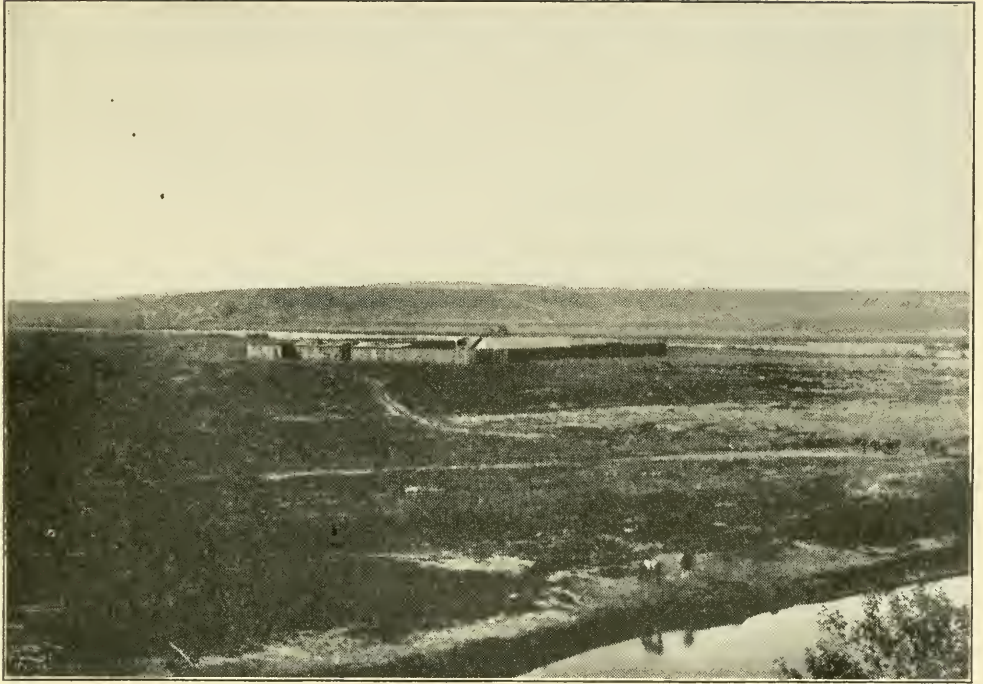
One of the principal posts was Fort Hamilton, commonly called "Whoop-up", at the forks of the Belly and St. Mary's Rivers, under two notorious characters—Healey and Culvertson. Colonel Steele gives us an authentic description of this place and the use it was put to by the whiskey traders:

"There were two walls about a dozen feet apart, built of heavy squared logs braced across by heavy log partitions about the same distance from one another, dividing it into rooms which were used as dwellings, blacksmith shops and stores, the doors and windows opening into a square. There were bastions at the corners and the walls were loopholed for musketry. Iron bars were placed across the chimneys to prevent the Indians from getting in that way. There were heavy log roofs across the partitions and a strong gate of oak with a small opening to trade through. The trader stood at the wicket, a tub full of whiskey beside him and when an Indian pushed a buffalo robe to him through the hole, he handed out a tin cup full of the poisonous decoction. A quart of the stuff bought a fine pony. When the spring came, wagon loads of the proceeds of the traffic were escorted to Fort Benton in Montana, some 200 miles south of the border line."

These brigands made it almost impossible for a legitimate trader to stay in the country and for this purpose they maintained the notorious "Spitzee Cavalry", to chase their opponents away. American traders penetrated as far north as Edmonton in 1872 and openly sold whiskey to the Blackfeet. They infested the Cypress Hills, the favorite hunting ground of all the Indians of the Plains. The demoralization of the Indians, the danger to the white inhabitants and the injury resulting to the country from such a condition of affairs, led the Canadian Government to organize the N. W. M. P. in 1873. No institution ever established by the Government of Canada has more fully realised the hopes of the country than the Mounted Police. For nearly half a century the Mounted Police have been the pride of Canada. Whether tracking the smuggler, the horse thief or murderer over the Plains and through the foothills of Alberta, or digging some half frozen miner out of the snows of the Yukon,—the "Mounties", as they are affectionately called, have always been equal to the task and duty imposed upon them. Their splendid contribution to the traditions of Canada is that the transition from primitive pioneer conditions to the complete establishment of civil institutions was conducted through their agency with perfect law and order and with the same safety for life and property as obtains in the settled communities of the other parts of the Dominion. The contrast to the state of affairs that prevailed in Montana in the days of the Vigilantes and in Southern Alberta before the Mounted Police came, from that which prevailed after 1874, is the emphatic proof that lawlessness is not necessarily inseparable from pioneering.

The Act establishing the force was passed in May, 1873. Certain changes were made in the following year. By virtue of these Acts the force consisted of a Commissioner, an Assistant Commissioner, six inspectors, 12 sub-inspectors, two surgeons, a paymaster, a quartermaster, a veterinary surgeon, and 300 N. C. O.'s and men divided into six divisions. In 1877, owing to the scattered nature of the force, the offices of paymaster, quartermaster and veterinary surgeon were abolished and their duties transferred to local officers. In 1878 inspectors became superintendents, sub-inspectors were raised to inspectors, officers which prevail at the present day.

Recruiting began in Eastern Canada in September, 1873, under Inspector Walsh. None but those able to pass the severe physical test required by the Act were accepted—"A sound constitution, able to ride, active, able-bodied, of good character and between the ages of 18 and 40 years; able to read and write either the English or French language." A. H. Griesbach, father of Brig. Gen. Hon. W. A. Griesbach, D. S. O., C. M. G., M. P. of Edmonton was the first man to enroll and the first Regimental Sergeant Major of the force. In October the force, consisting of "A", "B" and "C" divisions of 50 men each were dispatched to Fort Garry by the Dawson route and by the end of November were in quarters at the Lower Stone Fort. Superintendent Jarvis had command of the Fort until the arrival



FORT CALGARY, 1878

of the Commissioner, Lieutenant Colonel French. Commissioner French soon found his force was insufficient for the big task ahead of him and he was successful in influencing the Government to send out three more divisions, viz.: "D", "E" and "F" in the spring of 1874. This latter body was recruited in the east in the winter and were sent to the west through the United States, via Chicago, St. Paul and Fargo. They reached Fargo June 12th. This wing of the force consisted of 16 officers, 201 men and 244 horses. On June 19th they were joined at Dufferin by "A" and "B" and "C" divisions which left Lower Fort Garry June 7th, under Major Macleod, who had been appointed Assistant Commissioner a few days before. Dufferin was the point of departure for the long trek over the prairies to the foothills of Alberta. Preparations for the march westward were delayed by a terrible thunderstorm on the night of June 12th causing a stampede of the horses and cattle. It took several days to round up the horses, many of which had escaped 40 or 50 miles into Dakota. Besides military equipment, including two cannon, the force carried a large number of cattle for slaughter on the march and cows, calves, plows, harrows, mowing machines and other agricultural implements. The force was a colonizing agent as well as a territorial police and was to be self-sustaining wherever it located.

The march began June 8th and the train continued in a body until La Roche Percee was reached. Here the division under Inspector Jarvis and Sergeant Major Steele was detached with orders to proceed to Edmonton. This detachment followed the usual trail via Fort Ellice, Carlton, Pitt, Victoria and reached Edmonton in October where they wintered before establishing the headquarters of the force in this district at Fort Saskatchewan.

The objective of the main force was the junction of the Bow and Belly Rivers in Southern Alberta where they expected to come to close quarters with the whiskey traders. Leaving La Roche Percee July 29th the Cypress Hills were reached August 25th after heavy travelling, which affected the horses severely. Resting here until the 31st when Commissioner Macleod returned from Wood Mountains with supplies of oats for the horses, the train proceeded on its march and reached the Saskatchewan River on September 6th. The country was eaten bare by the vast herds of buffalo, making it exceedingly difficult to obtain feed for the horses. Colonel French considered his position a serious one and consequently led his force southward to the Sweet Grass Hills, camping on the West Butte, just north of the International Boundary line where abundant grass was found. French and Macleod then proceeded to Fort Benton to procure supplies and communicate with Ottawa. Orders from Ottawa directed Commissioner French to return east to Swan River which the government had chosen as the future headquarters of the R. N. W. M. P., and to leave Assistant Commissioner Macleod to establish a post on the Belly River.

On September 21st French set out with "D" and "E" division leav-

ing "B", "C" and "F" for duty in Alberta. Colonel Macleod engaged the famous Blackfoot scout, Jerry Potts, and set out for the Old Man River where he decided to build a post. The force moved westward until it reached the Benton trail where it turned north to Fort Whoop-up. By the time the police arrived at the famous rendezvous, everything was put in order and no seizures or arrests were made. On the trail, traders were met going south. Their wagons were searched, but no whiskey was found. Crossing the St. Mary's River the police crossed what is now known as the Blood Indian Reserve and crossed the Belly River at Slide Out. A few miles farther west they reached Macleod on the Old Man River and proceeded at once to build a Fort since known as Macleod. Police were not long in getting in touch with the whiskey traders. Three Bulls, a prominent Blackfoot Indian, informed Colonel Macleod that a colored trader named Bond had traded him a couple of gallons of whiskey for a horse. The next day Inspector Crozier and Jerry Potts located the gang at Pine Coulee and brought them into camp. They were fined \$250.00 apiece. Next day a prominent Benton trader called and paid the fine of all but the colored man. The robes and whiskey of the gang were confiscated, a practice the police followed in all their seizures. Before the end of the year Macleod had interviewed all the tribes of the Blackfeet nation and obtained assurances of their future good conduct, which the Indians as a whole, have ever since honourably observed. They were not slow to interpret the intention of the Government and the value of the police. "Before you came," said one of the old chiefs, at one of these interviews, "the Indian crept along, now he is not afraid to walk erect."

During the winter of 1874-75 a small detachment was stationed at Fort Kipp about 20 miles down the Old Man River from Fort Macleod under Inspector Griesbach. In the spring of 1875 Inspector Jarvis commenced the erection of the Police Barracks at Fort Saskatchewan, and the steamer "Northcote" made her first trip up the Saskatchewan with the materials for the Fort. An important post established that year was Fort Walsh in the Cypress Hills to check the whiskey traders who by this time were driven out of the Macleod district and had taken themselves to the refuge of the Cypress Hills. Large bands of Crees, Salteaux, Assiniboine and Sioux frequented this part of the community and required protection and supervision. In August Colonel Macleod travelled from Macleod to Red Deer River to meet Major General Selby Smith, G. O. C. of the Canadian Militia, who was on a tour of inspection of the N. W. M. P. On Macleod's return he left Inspector Brisbois to build a fort where the Elbow River joins the Bow. By December this post was completed and named Fort Brisbois, but later the name was changed to Calgary. The Hudson's Bay Company had a post up the Bow which was moved up to the new site. The I. G. Baker Company built a store and so began the City of Calgary in the fall of 1875. Other forts built that year were Shoal Lake, Battleford and Qu'Appelle.

In July, 1876, Colonel Macleod was promoted to the position of Commissioner on the retirement of Colonel French. A. G. Irvine became Assistant Commissioner. One of the first duties of the new commissioner was to accompany the Treaty Commissioners of Treaty No. 6 with the Indians to Forts Carlton and Pitt. This Treaty was signed in August and September of that year. The Indian disturbances in Montana in 1876 and the flight of hundreds of Sioux to Canadian Territory after the Custer Massacre, threw a heavy burden on the new commissioner and his men. The establishments at Fort Macleod and Fort Walsh were reinforced to meet the danger. The tense situation was handled with conspicuous skill and success. The Blackfeet remained loyal and refused to negotiate with the American Indians. Crowfoot, Chief of the Blackfeet, kept Colonel Macleod fully informed of these overtures and negotiations, asked the advice of the Commissioner and rigidly followed it. Southern Alberta was therefore the most important district in the whole North-West and for this reason and also on account of the unsuitability of the Swan River, the headquarters of the police were transferred to Fort Macleod. The strength and distribution of the force at the end of 1876 was as follows: Fort Macleod five sub-inspectors, 103 men, 105 horses; Fort Walsh, four sub-inspectors, 95 men and 90 horses; Fort Calgary, 35 men and 37 horses; Fort Saskatchewan, 20 men, 18 horses; Battleford and Carlton, 11 men, 16 horses; Swan River, 29 men; Shoal Lake, Qu-Appelle, and Beautiful Plains with a corresponding number of horses for each post.

A heavy duty in these early days of the force was the conveyance of prisoners from Macleod and Fort Walsh to Winnipeg to be tried for major crimes. This condition was improved by the North West Territories Act in 1875 which became operative in 1877 and establishes a complete system of the administration of justice within the North West Territories.

In 1877 more Sioux crossed over into the N. W. T. and it was found necessary to establish look-out posts at Wood Mountain at the eastern end of the Cypress Hills. Sitting Bull crossed into Canada in May with 135 lodges thus making in all nearly 700 lodges of American Indians who decided to seek a haven in the land of the "White Mother" as they called the Queen, Victoria. This was a big year for police. In June Inspector Irvine and Inspector Walsh visited Sitting Bull at a place called "The Hole", 140 miles east of Fort Walsh in the Cypress Hills to ascertain his intentions and to superintend an interview of three American Scouts who had followed Sitting Bull into Canada. Sitting Bull refused to talk to the American Scouts or to return to American territory. In September Treaty No. 7 was concluded at Blackfoot Crossing by Governor Laird. He was assisted by Commissioner Macleod, who on the conclusion of the Treaty went direct to the Cypress Hills to meet the United States Commissioners of the Sitting Bull commission. The Commissioners, Generals Terry and Lawrence, reached Fort Walsh October 16th, being escorted from the border by the Police under Commissioner Macleod. Sitting Bull had been induced

to come to this post to meet the Commissioners, but refused to return to the United States. The presence of so many Sioux in the vicinity of the Cypress Hills, who were jealously regarded by Canadian Indians, induced the government to move the headquarters of the force to Fort Walsh in 1878. The mild winter of 1877-78 kept the buffalo far out on the Plains and forced the Blackfeet Indians eastward over the Plains for their supplies which brought them into contact with the Sioux. Sinister rumors of Indian wars continually reached the Police, but the summer continued without disturbance. Both Crowfoot and Sitting Bull were anxious for peace and successfully managed to keep the hostile tribes under control.

It became apparent to the Police and others acquainted with the country, that the buffalo were doomed to rapid extinction. The feeding of the Indian tribes was looming up as a serious problem. The Government was, however, anxious to have the Sioux return to their own country. Commissioner Macleod estimated in 1878 that the buffalo would last three years longer. They practically became extinct in the North-West in 1879. Once during that summer a large herd crossed the boundary line of the Cypress Hills and small bands reached the Saskatchewan River. The main herd, however, was held south of the Milk River about the "Little Rockies". Cut off from their usual food supply the Indians of Southern Alberta were in a deplorable condition. The Bloods, Peigans and the Assiniboines around Cypress Hills, supplied with temporary rations by the Police, set out to hunt in U. S. territory, but were ordered out of the country by the U. S. Government. The only alternative before the Canadian Government was to place the Indians on their reserves, which threw much extra work on the Police. They conducted the Treaty payments, supervised the distribution of supplies, and did all the work afterwards undertaken by the Department of the Interior. They were the never-failing handy men of the Government. During 1879, 50 criminal charges were tried by the Police, 35 of which were against white men. Judging from the preponderance of the Indian population over the whites, the Indian was fast becoming civilized, at least enough to observe the law.

We have seen that since 1876 and 1877 the presence of so many American Sioux was a disturbing element to the Canadian Indians. The Police never relaxed in their efforts to persuade Sitting Bull and the other Chiefs of his nation that they could never hope to obtain a reserve and be placed upon the same footing as the Canadian Treaty Indians. After exhausting every artifice of Indian diplomacy, Sitting Bull decided to surrender to the American Government, and in 1881 he left Wood Mountain for Fort Buford where he surrendered July 21st. The services of Inspectors Walsh and Crozier for conducting the negotiations with such success, were specially mentioned by the Commissioner. To have kept a warlike nation like the Sioux at peace with thousands of their hereditary enemies on this side of the border, in the face of diminishing supplies is an achievement that will always redound to the good name and efficiency of the Mounted Police.

In 1882 the Governor General of Canada, the Marquis of Lorne, visited the North West Territories. He was escorted by the N. W. M. P. from the End of Steel on the C. P. R., a short distance west of Winnipeg, to various points in the Territories, crossing the prairie from Battleford to Blackfoot Crossing, to Calgary and to Macleod and returning to Canada by Fort Shaw, Montana. On this trip the Police escort travelled 2,072 miles at an average of 35 miles per day. This was the first of such trips. The various Governors General of Canada have invariably been escorted from place to place while on their journey through the North-West by the Mounted Police, who have always elicited the heartiest praise for the manner and safety with which these distinguished personages have been conducted. Among the most treasured memories of the Force is the praise bestowed upon it by His Royal Highness the Duke of Connaught, than whom there was no one in the Empire better able to judge the smartness and efficiency of a military force.

As an example of the firmness and effectiveness of the police methods, the arrest of Bull Elk, a minor Blackfoot Chief in January, 1882, will serve to show the character of the men and the arduous tasks imposed upon them. Bull Elk fired at a white man on the Reserve at Blackfoot Crossing. Notwithstanding that 700 Indian braves armed with carbines and Winchesters determined to prevent his arrest, four policemen took him safely into custody and held him until a detachment of fifteen men under Superintendent Crozier came up from Macleod. This small force carried the prisoner safely and without a shot to Macleod and lodged him in the guard room. During 1882 the police spent a great deal of time in persuading and conducting the Crees and Assiniboines of the Cypress Hills to their Reserve. Chief Piapot was especially hard to advise. In July he reached his Reserve near Qu'Appelle but returned again in September to Fort Walsh. His action strengthened the obstinacy of Big Bear, who up to this time refused to take treaty. Commissioner Irving succeeded in securing the adhesion of Big Bear to Treaty No. 6 in October of that year. During the summer this recalcitrant Indian organized an attack upon the police headquarters at Fort Walsh, but seeing the effective preparations made for his reception, he chose discretion as the better part of valor, and withdrew.

The construction of the C. P. R. and the employment of 4,000 men along the right of way, increased the task of the police as it induced numerous whiskey traders to frequent a ready market. Horse stealing and cattle stealing by Canadian and American Indians imposed additional duties on the officers and men and made this one of the busiest years the force had up to this time experienced. The total strength was now 474 officers and men stationed at Fort Walsh, Wood Mountain, Macleod, Battleford, Prince Albert, Qu'Appelle, Fort Saskatchewan, Calgary, Regina, with small units on command at Shoal Lake, Broadview, Moosomin, Troy,

Moose Jaw, Fort Pelly, End of Steel, Maple Creek, Ten Mile Crossing, Crow's Nest Pass, Whoop-up, Stand-off and points along the boundary line. The selection of Regina as the capital of the North West Territories in 1882 induced the Government to move the headquarters of the Police to Regina. The next year a new post was built at Fort Macleod, two and one-half miles west of the old post. Old Man River changed its course and isolated the old barracks on an island.

The reports of 1883 and 1884 indicate the prevalence of a great deal of horse stealing by the Indians and whites. The American Indians were very troublesome. They stole many horses from the Canadian Indians and settlers. It was generally impossible to recover them as the American authorities were indifferent in cooperating with the Mounted Police, who invariably gave the utmost assistance to American settlers in recovering horses stolen in American territory by Canadian Indians. The extension of the boundaries of the police district from Manitoba to the Rocky Mountains and along the railway built in British Columbia greatly increased the work of the police. The suppression of the liquor traffic was most arduous, the difficulties of suppressing this trade had increased enormously since the days when a few whiskey traders debauched the Indians. Then, as now, the Police got very little support from the settlers. Few people would risk the odium of being informers and local magistrates were averse to trying such cases because very often the culprits were either acquaintances, friends or customers.

In 1884 the Force was increased to ten divisions, each having an establishment of fifteen officers, N. C. O.'s and one hundred men. This action was necessary to secure a sufficient force to cope with the brooding troubles of the Rebellion, which broke out in the following year. In the troublous year of 1885 Superintendent Cotton was in charge at Macleod, Superintendent Herchmer at Calgary and Inspector Griesbach at Fort Saskatchewan. There was great danger of an uprising of the Indians of Alberta in sympathy with the half breeds and Indians of Forts Pitt, Carlton and Battleford. After the fight at Duck Lake on March 26th, the Indians of Alberta showed signs of hostility and unrest. Rumors spread with startling rapidity and the settlers were exceedingly anxious. There were no telegraphs and only one railroad in the country. Southern Alberta was served by one mail a week from Calgary. Superintendent Cotton established a courier service between Calgary and Macleod. By this means correct news was obtained of the events from outside and greatly aided in calming the fears of the settlers. Superintendent Herchmer was ordered to accompany Commissioner Irvine on his expedition to Prince Albert. Calgary was, therefore, left without defence and the district thrown into a dreadful state of alarm. The people had acquired such implicit faith in the Mounted Police to give them protection at all times, that even the cowboys and ranchers had ceased to provide themselves with arms. The consequence was that when the

Rebellion broke out and the Police were ordered east, the cowboys and ranchers and settlers, who formerly went about their daily duties armed for all emergencies, were defenceless. Major General Strange, who operated a ranch at Blackfoot Crossing, organized a troop of scout cavalry and an infantry home guard. Major Hatton organized a cavalry corps known as the Alberta Mounted Rifles. At Macleod Capt. Jack Stewart raised a troop of cowboys known as the Rocky Mountain Rangers, who patrolled the country between Macleod and Medicine Hat, giving protection to the working parties on the railway and telegraph lines then being built to Lethbridge. On April 12th two battalions of the militia, the 12th and 65th, reached Calgary. These various units were called the Alberta Field Force and were placed by General Middleton under the command of Major General Strange.

The conduct of the Indians at various points in Northern Alberta and along the Saskatchewan, rendered it necessary to send a punitive expedition with all haste. At Red Deer, Beaver Lake and Saddle Lake, the Indians were pillaging and threatening the settlers. Samson's and Bob Tail's bands on the Battle River plundered the Hudson's Bay store at that place and drove out the white settlers and officials of the Indian farm. At Frog Lake on April 2nd Big Bear's band murdered a number of settlers and carried off the rest of the men, women and children as prisoners. General Strange, acting under orders of General Middleton, organized an expedition to proceed to Fort Pitt to suppress the Indian rising and capture Big Bear. This proved to be a very difficult undertaking and its success was largely due to the assistance of the Mounted Police under Majors Steele and Perry.

On April 20th Major General Strange left Calgary with the right wing of the column, consisting of Steele's Scouts, and four companies of the 65th Battalion. The left wing left on the 23rd under Major Perry, and consisted of 242 men and a nine pounder. This piece of artillery was very difficult to transport, as the roads had to be cut for long distances through the woods. The Rev. John Macdougall was sent ahead of General Strange with four Stoney scouts to interview the Indians between Red Deer and Edmonton, and bring the news of relief to the old trading post. The Indians around Edmonton were very excited for a time, but the news of the approach of the troops sobered them, as well as the Indians of the Battle River. When the troops passed through the Battle River Reserves, the quondam Indian rebels were busy at the plow.

Before General Strange arrived at Edmonton, Captain Stiff had organized the Edmonton Home Guard. The Hudson's Bay fort was put in as good a state of defence as possible. All the arms, including two brass cannon and all the ammunition in the district, were collected. News that Riel had sent a courier to Battleford, Fort Pitt, Saddle Lake, Victoria and Lac la Biche, calling the Indians to rebel, coupled with the news of the uprising of Poundmaker's men, prompted speedy measures of defence.

Similar preparations were made at Fort Saskatchewan by Inspector Griesbach, who, at the request of the Justices of the Peace of Edmonton, took command of the defense forces of the Edmonton district. As the wires were cut between Edmonton and Battleford, the courier service was established between Edmonton and Calgary, each courier covering a beat of 25 to 30 miles.

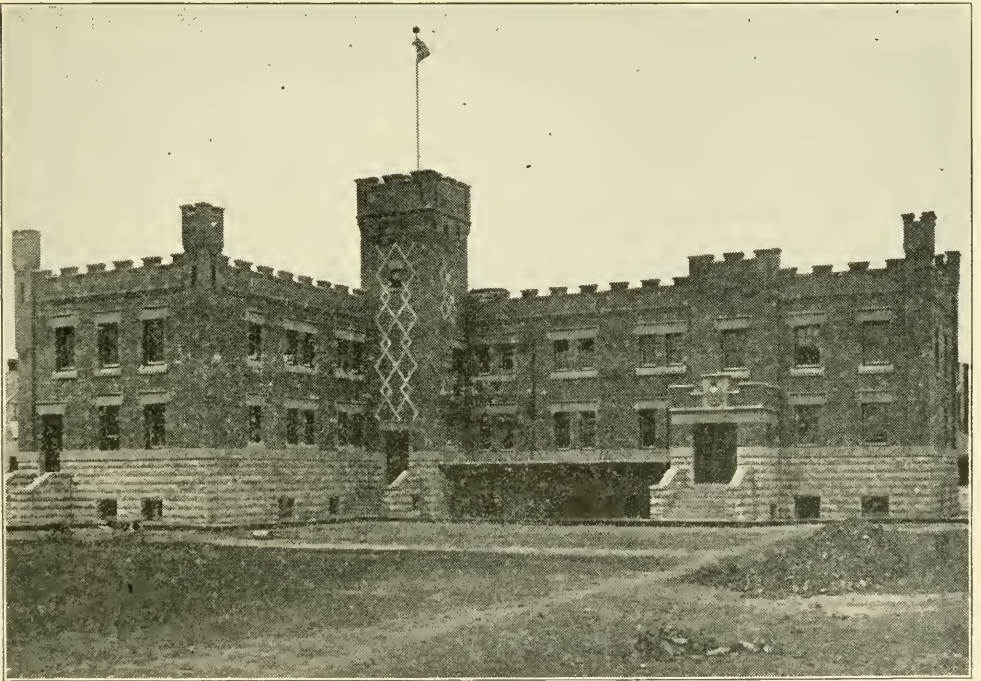
General Strange reached Edmonton on May 1st, and Major Perry on May 6th. Major Perry left small detachments at Red Deer and Peace Hills to keep the line open. The Edmonton volunteers were disbanded by General Strange, and many of them joined the transport service of the Alberta Field Force. On May 6th, Major Steele's scouts and two companies of the 65th Battalion left Edmonton for Fort Pitt by the trail along the north bank of the Saskatchewan River. They were followed on the 8th by the remainder of the 65th Battalion under Lt. Col. Hughes. General Strange sent a company of the 65th back to the Battle River, and half a company to the Peace Hills (Lucas' Farm) to assist in keeping the line open. Rude forts were built at each place, the one at Battle River known as Fort Ostell, and the one at Peace Hill as Fort Ethier, after the officers in command. On the 10th, Colonel Osborne, with the Winnipeg Light Infantry and the Alberta Rifles, arrived in Edmonton from Calgary. The Indians at Selvais' settlement and Laboucan's settlement, on the Battle River, were reported to have received word from Poundmaker, and were restless. Inspector Griesbach visited the place, but made no arrests.

On the 14th, General Strange with a detachment of the Winnipeg Light Infantry, Major Perry's Police Detachment and the nine pounder, took transport down the river in flat-bottomed boats, built by Chief Factor Macdougall, assisted by the Edmonton Home Guards. At Victoria a part of the force disembarked, and from this point progress was made by trail and river until a junction was made with the advance column under Major Steele, near Frog Lake. Before proceeding, Victoria was put in a state of defence and a Home Guard organized under Rev. Mr. McLachlan. Here Strange interviewed Chief Pakan to get some of his men to accompany the column as scouts. Pakan said he was afraid of Big Bear and refused.

At Frog Lake the bodies of the murdered white settlers were found and buried. The Indians were located near Fort Pitt. General Strange and Major Steele pushed on to bring them to an engagement. They reached Fort Pitt on the 25th of May, to find it burning and in ruins. Scouts were sent out to locate Big Bear. Major Perry, accompanied by Rev. John Macdougall and Canon McKay, scouted the country southward to Battle River; Major Steele scouted northward towards Onion Lake, and back to Fort Pitt. Within a few miles of the Fort he encountered 187 lodges of Big Bear's band. Steele's force was joined by General Strange, who brought up the nine pounder. The Indians were driven from their



NORTH WEST MOUNTED POLICE BARRACKS, MacLEOD



ROYAL NORTH WEST MOUNTED POLICE BARRACKS, EDMONTON

position on the 27th. Next day they made a stand at Frenchman's Butte, close by. The Indians' position was one of great strength. Skillfully constructed rifle pits in the scrub on the hillside afforded them excellent cover and protection. General Strange, after a preliminary battle, considered the enemy too strong to be dislodged, and suspended the battle until reinforcements could arrive from Battleford. Meanwhile Big Bear and his men abandoned their position on Frenchman's Butte and fled towards Loon Lake. In doing so, some of the prisoners taken at Frog Lake escaped.

A company of the 90th Battalion, the Little Black Devils of Winnipeg, who distinguished themselves so gloriously in the Second Battle of Ypres, was sent up from Battleford. Major Perry returned with his detachment, having gone as far east as Battleford. General Middleton reached Fort Pitt, June 3rd. The day before Major Steele began the pursuit of Big Bear. He picked up his trail about 50 miles from Fort Pitt, where he had a brisk running fight with the fleeing Indians near Loon Lake. General Middleton, moving by the Onion Lake trail with his force, which included Superintendent Herchmer's Mounted Police, came up with Steele's Scouts on June 7th, and began a fresh pursuit of Big Bear across the lake. Major Steele and a force of Mounted men with three days' rations, were ready on the 10th to make a dash for Big Bear's camp, but for some unknown reason they were recalled by Middleton and Big Bear, whose band was now breaking up, escaped to the east. General Middleton and the police returned to Fort Pitt. Big Bear was captured by a Mounted Police patrol at Fort Carlton on July 2d by Sergt. Smart of the Mounted Police, and the rebellion was over.

The services of the Police in the Rebellion may be estimated by General Strange's opinion of Major Steele's work: "Major Steele and his cavalry were the eyes, ears and feelers of the force, and their spirited pursuit of Big Bear crowned with success the long and weary march they had protected, and, to a certain extent, guided." Criticism was made of the Mounted Police for the part played by that excellent force during the Rebellion. Such criticism was misdirected. The Police were placed under the command of General Middleton by the Minister of Militia. If the Militia had been under the Police and Colonel Irvine and his resourceful superintendents, the Rebellion would have been quelled with more dispatch and satisfaction to the people of Western Canada.

After 1885 a change came over the country. The Indians began to settle down on their Reserves and submit to the inevitable dominance of the white man. The settlement and development of the resources of the country began. The problems of the police dealt with the administration of justice and the repression of crime that grew with the increase of population. The ranching industry began to flourish and with it the cattle rustlers and the horse thieves became a thorn in the flesh of the police. The vast extent of the country, the great coulees and foothills,

the great herds of horses and cattle that roamed the open range, constituted conditions exceedingly favorable to this form of crime, and the temptation to run stolen horses or cattle over the International border was alluring as well as profitable to the desperadoes of the bad lands of Montana and the Indians and white rustlers on both sides of the line. The vigilance of the police boundary riders was never relaxed. Outposts were established along the boundary from Manitoba to the Rocky Mountains to watch these brigands of the range. In 1894 the police broke up a gang of forty half breeds in the Sweet Grass Hills, who had been implicated in the Rebellion of 1885 and who apparently intended to live on the ranchers' cattle as their fathers had lived by hunting the buffalo. They terrorized the ranchers on both sides of the line and openly boasted they would kill any cattle they wanted to use and would heap dire vengeance on anyone who opposed them. They were the would-be lords of the hills and plains. They would ride to a rancher's door, tell him they intended to kill one of his cattle that day and that it would be good for his health to stay at home. One day they crossed into Canada, killing some settlers' cattle on the way, and ran into Corporal Dickson of the Writing-on-Stone Detachment. They camped in a coulee and picketed their horses some distance away. Corporal Dickson and his men quietly secured the horses during the night. In the early morning the half-breeds came for their horses. They were promptly arrested. At the trial it was found that the actual killing on this occasion took place a few rods to the south of the International Boundary Line and consequently the Mounted Police had no jurisdiction. The incident, however, had a wholesome effect as the half breeds never again attempted to carry out their depredations on Canadian territory.

While the Indians gave no trouble as tribes, yet it was difficult to discipline them to stay on the Reserves and the Police were often blamed for not showing their old dash and firmness in dealing with the red men. But conditions had changed. In the early days the Indians could retaliate only on the police, but when the country was settled with hundreds of defenceless settlers, rashness on the part of the Police might have incurred unpleasant and murderous reprisals upon innocent settlers and their families.

In April, 1886, Commissioner Irvine resigned and was succeeded by Commissioner Herchmer. His resignation was regretted by the entire force. Superintendent Crozier became Assistant Commissioner but was succeeded shortly afterwards by Superintendent Herchmer, a brother of the newly-appointed Commissioner. Commissioner Herchmer had no previous experience with the Mounted Police and his appointment was against the traditions of the force. There were a number of superintendents well qualified for the position. This, however, seems to be one of the very few instances in the history of the Police where political and personal considerations struck at the discipline and efficiency of this splendid force.

New outposts were established at Chin Coulee, Forty Mile Coulee, Bull's Head Coulee and patrols maintained between them on a schedule that required travelling an average of thirty miles per day. Other posts in Southern Alberta were Lethbridge, Stand-off, Kootenai, Pincher Creek, The Leavings (Granum), Kipp, Crowsnest and Peigan. In September of this year Superintendent Steele marched "D" Division from Battleford via Sounding Lake and Blackfoot Crossing to Macleod. At Calgary Superintendent Antrobus was in command and Inspector Griesbach at Fort Saskatchewan.

Chin Coulee, Forty Mile Coulee and Bull's Head Coulee outposts were abandoned in 1887 and others established at Kipp's Coulee, 24 miles south of Lethbridge; Milk River, Writing-on-Stone Coulee, 35 miles east of Milk River Ridge, and Pend d'Oreille. There was also a new post established on the St. Mary's River, 58 miles southwest of Macleod. Lethbridge was made the headquarters of a division that year and commodious barracks and stables erected. "D" Division moved to Lethbridge under Superintendent Steele January 21, 1887, but was superseded June 7th by "K" Division under Supt. A. R. Macdonell, who was soon succeeded by Superintendent Deane, who held the post for eighteen years. From Calgary, the headquarters of "E" Division, the police patrolled the country south to Mosquito Creek and Little Bow, north to Little Red Deer and Rosebud Creek, west to the Rocky Mountains and east to Crowfoot Creek, Sandhills and Blackfoot Reserve. Detachments in this district were stationed at Banff, High River, Gleichen and Scarlett's (the first night stopping place north of Calgary on the Edmonton trail). In the Edmonton district detachments were kept at Red Deer, Peace Hills, Blackmud Creek, St. Albert, Stony Plain, Lac Ste. Anne, Riviere Qui Barre, Victoria and Edmonton, with regular patrols between these points.

These patrols were a very important factor in the peace and good government of the Province. The patrolman called on the settlers, taking particulars of any complaints, suspicious characters, stray and diseased animals. They rode through the herds of cattle and horses on the range and knew the brands of the various cattle owners. They were therefore in a position to properly supervise and give information on this important industry. The movements of the Indians of the entire community were under constant survey and were regularly reported to headquarters. Prairie fires occupied much time and gave the men of the force a dangerous and most useful work for the community. Assistance was given to various departments of the Government. The Departments of Customs and of Agriculture were assisted in watching smugglers and preventing invasions of mangy cattle and glandered horses from American territory. Enormous numbers of American cattle turned loose near the border required constant turning back and gave the patrols great trouble. The Department of the Interior called upon the police to assist in the distribution of seed grain and the payment of Indian treaty money. In fact there were

few duties in connection with the administration of Federal and Territorial Law that the police were not called upon at one time or another to perform. They continued to be the handy men of the Government—jacks of many trades and masters of them all.

The police reports from 1888 and for the next ten years indicate how difficult it was to control the liquor trade. The permit system was in force and some of the judges held that a permit could be transferred. The result was that a person could acquire a considerable stock of liquor without criminal liability. He could have all his friends transfer their permits to him. The stock of liquor he acquired in this way was often used to conceal a larger stock kept in hiding, which permitted him the best facilities for carrying on an illicit trade. Everything was done to thwart the Mounted Police in carrying out the law. The permit system, which was originally designated to prevent the sale of liquor to the Indians, answered that purpose very well. The whites regarded it as an Indian law and balked when it applied to themselves, hence the illicit trade had, as a rule, the sympathy of the public.

In 1894 the force was reduced from 1000 to 750. Though the territory which it was called upon to supervise had vastly extended in the last ten years, the force had done its work so well that such a step was now quite justified. Indians, half breeds and whites were all settled down to the routine life of a well ordered community. One phase of the great work of the N. W. M. P. was done. The Indians had now large herds of cattle and were supplied with a creditable equipment of mowers, rakes and wagons for hay making. They were now supplying some of the Police posts with hay and coal. Skin lodges began to disappear and to be replaced by neat log houses; and wash stands, sewing machines, etc., were common articles of furniture in the Indian home.

Colonel Macleod died at Calgary in 1894 and Jerry Potts, the famous interpreter, in 1896. These were probably two of the most prominent and picturesque characters of the whole police force. Colonel Macleod led the force into Southern Alberta in 1874 and founded the traditions of honor and efficiency that have always distinguished the officers and men of the Mounted Police. As a soldier, judge and gentleman Macleod had few equals. At the time of his death the Edmonton Bulletin said that no man in his time had done as much for Western Canada as Colonel Macleod. From the time he arrived his hand was seen in everything pertaining to the well being of the people of the North West Territories. He was educated at Upper Canada College, Toronto, and Queen's University. After he graduated he studied law and was called to the bar. He served in the Fenian Raids and in 1870 accompanied the Red River Expedition as Brigade Major. In 1885 he was the principal factor in maintaining peace among the Blackfeet, who, as Colonel Steele says, looked upon him almost with adoration, justly regarding him as the personification of truth and honour. In 1887 he was appointed to the newly organized

Supreme Court of the North West Territories and was one of its judges until the day of his death. As one of the Stipendiary Magistrates of the North-West, he was ex-officio a member of the old North West Council where his legal training and knowledge of the country gave him an advantage in planning and carrying through useful legislation.

A word should be said about Jerry Potts, who was possibly one of the greatest guides and interpreters the North-West ever produced. He trained the best scouts in the police force and in the early days when the prairie was a trackless waste, there were very few trips of importance that were not guided by him or men to whom he had taught the craft of the plains. His influence with the Blackfoot tribes prevented bloodshed on many occasions. He possessed most of the virtues and few of the faults of both races to which he belonged. He was a Scotch Peigan. As an interpreter he was the most reliable in the police service. He had a clear-cut, terse way of his own in explaining to the Indians the remarks of the police officials so accurately as to leave no shadow of doubt in their minds.

The second phase of the great work of the N. W. M. P. is concerned with the opening up of the new North-West, as Northern Alberta, the Peace River and Mackenzie districts are called and the far north from Hudson's Bay to the Yukon. Some of the bravest deeds in the history of northern explorations and adventure may be credited to the men of the northern police patrols. The discovery of gold in the Yukon in 1896 riveted attention on the North West Territories. Notwithstanding the reduction of the force in 1894 it was called upon to supervise the territory from Edmonton to the Yukon and the Arctic Ocean. Patrols were sent into the north and 250 men were dispatched for the preservation of order and the enforcement of law in the Yukon. In the winter of 1897 Inspector Jarvis conducted the first northern patrol into the Athabaska and Great Slave districts. He left Fort Saskatchewan January 4th and travelled by Lac La Biche, Fort McMurray, Chipewyan, Resolution, Vermilion, Dunvegan, Lesser Slave Lake and Athabaska Landing, making the trip in three months. The object of the expedition was to report upon the resources of the country for the Government, warn Indians and trappers against indiscriminate killing of beaver, the illegal use of poisons, setting out fires and generally to inspire wholesome respect for law in those remote regions. Twenty convictions were made on the trip. This was the beginning of a regular system of northern patrols, which have been continued to the present day. Other patrols of that year were undertaken by Inspectors Snyder, Rutledge and Moody. Inspector Snyder went to Jasper House, Smoky River, Sturgeon Lake, returning via Lesser Slave Lake and Fort Assiniboine to Fort Saskatchewan. Ex-Inspector Chalmers, on behalf of the Government of the North West Territories, was commanded to locate a wagon road from Edmonton to the Peace River, while Inspector Moody was given the difficult task of finding

a wagon road and cattle trail from Fort St. John on the Peace River to the Pelly River for parties going into the Yukon from Edmonton. He left Edmonton September 4, 1897, and reached Fort Grahame on the Finlay River in December. He had to kill his horses to feed his dogs and after a long delay which kept him at Fort Grahame until July 1st set out again and reached the Pelly River, which he descended to Fort Selkirk, arriving at this point October 24, 1898. In December Inspector Rutledge led the first patrol to Fort Simpson, making the journey from Fort Saskatchewan and back in three months and ten days.

Colonel Herchmer retired in 1900 and was succeeded by Col. Bowen Perry. When Colonel Perry took over the command the force was greatly under strength and somewhat disorganized on account of the numbers of officers and men who had been permitted to enlist for service in the Boer war. The police supplied 245 officers, N. C. O.'s and men for the campaign in South Africa. Such a reduction in strength coming on the eve of a period of unprecedented growth in population, rapid settlement, the rise of numerous new communities and the extension of railways taxed the force to the limits of its resources. As an example of the arduous duties required to be discharged, let us mention the work of Corporal Field at Fort Chipewyan in the winter of 1902. The intrepid Corporal tramped 1,300 miles with dogs in the depth of winter to find an insane man at Hay River and bring him in safety to headquarters at Fort Saskatchewan.

During the ten years ending 1900 the number of detachments of the force increased from 49 to 79 and ten years later the number of detachments had increased to 170. In 1903 Superintendent Constantine went as far north as Fort McPherson from which place he dispatched Sergeant Fitzgerald, who was afterwards to give his life in the service of the police. Sergeant Fitzgerald carried the patrol to Herschel Island and supervised the trade of the American whalers with the Esquimaux along the Arctic Coast. In pursuance of this policy posts were established on the Hudson's Bay by Inspector Moody in 1904 and 1905. In the latter year a new district was established and manned. The new division was designated "N" Division with headquarters at Lesser Slave Lake, Superintendent Constantine in command. To this division was assigned the task of opening up the trail from Peace River in Alberta to the Yukon. The trail was completed to Fort Grahame in 1906 and the next year to Hazelton, British Columbia, but was never carried any farther. From this time forward regular patrols were established in the far north along the Arctic Coast and the interior, one of the most important being the annual patrol from Dawson City to Fort McPherson, a distance of 500 miles across the mountains. It was on this patrol that Inspector Fitzgerald and party lost their lives in 1911, the only ill-fated expedition in the history of the Mounted Police.

The new field of operations now covered the North West Territories from the International Boundary Line to the Arctic Ocean. The force dealt with all classes of men—the lawless element of the border, the cowboys and Indians of the plains, coal miners of the mountains, navvies, trappers of the Athabaska and the Mackenzie, the American whalers and the Esquimaux at the top of the world. Possibly the most persistent class of criminals that the police had to deal with was the cattle and horse thieves of southern Alberta. Different methods were used by the thieves. Brands were defaced and altered, young calves and unbranded cattle were driven off from the parent herd and either killed or branded with the thief's brand. A practice grew up that any unbranded animal could be claimed by the party who found it. Even the Stock Associations attempted to establish the rule that mavericks caught in the Round Up became the property of the Association. This practice was declared illegal by Chief Justice Sifton in 1903. Another practice was to carry a running iron. In stormy weather or during the weaning time the rustler picked up the young calves. It was the matter of a few minutes to brand the youngsters and appropriate them to the herd of the thief. The herds of certain ranchers grew at an enormous ratio. One rancher, whose name appears on the police records, began in the spring with 32 cows. They proved prolific beyond the bounds of nature. The 32 cows had 68 calves that summer. The police investigated the case and a conviction followed with a ten year sentence by Chief Justice Sifton in the Stony Mountain Penitentiary. In the early days, cattle and horse thieves ran their quarry over the border into the United States, but as northern Alberta, Saskatchewan and Manitoba developed, the stolen stock was passed eastward and northward. A regular system flourished for eight or ten years. In 1915 a determined effort was made to break up this gang. Superintendent Horrigan of the Calgary Division was especially deputed to accomplish this task. So vigorously did he pursue his task and spread the net that he secured the arrest and committal of 44 horse and 24 cattle thieves. He followed up the good work in 1916 by securing 51 committals. It was found that over 40 men were engaged as ringleaders in this nefarious traffic. Those who were not arrested and imprisoned quit the country. Today this crime has practically become extinct.

In 1914 the force was increased by 500 men who were taken on for one year's service. Over 2,000 men applied for enlistment. The majority enlisted on the assumption that a police battalion would be sent overseas and at the end of their term most of them joined the C. E. F.

For many years after the Province of Alberta became organized there was no Provincial Police Force. Cities and incorporated towns maintained police officials, but unincorporated towns and in country districts the maintenance of law and order was carried on by the R. N. W. M. P., by an arrangement between the Federal and Provincial Governments. Until the organization of the North West Territories into the Provinces

of Alberta and Saskatchewan, the guardrooms of the Mounted Police were the only gaols in the country and so continued until the establishment of these penal institutions by the Province. In Alberta gaols were established at Lethbridge and Fort Saskatchewan in 1911 and 1913 respectively.

It was also the duty of the police to escort prisoners and supply orderlies to the Judges of the Court and to supervise prisoners on parole. On March 1, 1917, the Mounted Police severed connection with the administration of justice in Alberta. The Province in that year organized the first Alberta Provincial Police force and took over the work formerly carried on by the Gentlemen of the Scarlet and Gold.

The long looked for opportunity for the Mounted Police to serve in the overseas forces came in April, 1918. This was received with enthusiasm by all ranks and practically every man in the force under the age limit and physically fit volunteered. The draft consisted of 112 officers and 726 N. C. O.'s and men and left Regina May 30th under Major Jennings. The men were given leave and transferred to the C. E. F. Upon arrival in France they were immediately sent to the front and served in the battle area until the Armistice. The force also supplied a squadron for service in Siberia.

At the conclusion of the war the Government decided to authorize the increase of the force to 2,500 as necessity required. On September 30, 1919, the strength was 60 officers, 1,540 N. C. O.'s and constables and 833 horses. The jurisdiction of the force extended now to all Western Canada. Among its duties defined by Order-in-Council are the following:

- (a) The enforcement of the Federal laws.
- (b) Patrolling and protecting the International Boundary Line.
- (c) Generally to aid and assist the civil powers in the preservation of law and order wherever the Government of Canada may direct.

The extension of jurisdiction and duties has required a reorganization of the force and a redistribution of its strength. The boundaries of the old district have been cancelled. Regina is still the headquarters of the force. Western Canada is divided into seven police districts as the following table will show:

District.	Headquarters.	Strength.
Manitoba	Winnipeg	250
Southern Saskatchewan	Regina	75
Northern Saskatchewan	Prince Albert	85
Southern Alberta	Lethbridge	195
Northern Alberta	Edmonton	130
British Columbia	Vancouver	210
Yukon	Dawson	55
General H. Q. and Depot	Regina	200
Total		1200

In 1919 the old name was changed to the Royal Canadian Mounted Police. The title of Royal had been conferred by Edward VII in June, 1904. A detachment of the police attended the King's coronation and so impressed his Majesty that he remembered the force in the distribution of coronation honours.

CHAPTER XII.

LAND AND COLONIZATION.

One of the greatest tasks of successive Governments of Canada has been the settlement of the western prairies. Generally this has been encouraged by free grant lands to actual settlers and to colonization companies or railway corporations. In recent years, in fact since 1897, grants to railways have been discontinued and the policy of granting tracts to colonization companies has practically ceased. Land is now reserved to the actual settlers.

The first step in the settlement of the prairies was the adoption and execution of a system of survey. After the transfer of the Hudson's Bay Company's rights to the Government of Canada, immigrants began to come. The completion of the Dawson Route and the Northern Pacific Railway in 1872 gave a great impetus to immigration and created conditions which called for prompt measures to place the settlers on the land. At the time of the transfer, settlement was confined to the river banks of the Red and Assiniboine Rivers, where the Selkirk settlers and others occupied lots varying from one and one-half chains to twenty chains in width and extending back from the banks of the river a distance of about two miles.

The Dominion Lands Office was organized in March, 1871, under John Stoughton Dennis, Surveyor-General, and the first regulations respecting the disposal of Dominion lands were issued on April 25th, 1871. Under these regulations, unappropriated, surveyed Crown lands were offered for sale at \$1.00 per acre, limited to 640 acres to any one person. Pre-emption and homestead rights were established and provision made for the first railway subsidy in the North West Territories. Lands subject to the regulations might be withdrawn from settlement to provide a strip three townships wide on each side of the route of the proposed Inter Oceanic Railway.

The first Dominion Lands Act was passed in 1872. This Act has been amended from time to time to meet the changing conditions of the country, but its main features have persisted to the present and are embodied in the Dominion Lands Act of 1908 and amendments thereto. Numerous survey parties were placed in the field under the supervision of Mr. Lindsay Russell and a grand scheme of surveys outlined which embraced the whole of the North West Territories. Meridians and bases were surveyed and explorations carried on to locate the timber areas and sources

of water supply. To ensure that in any one township the greatest possible number of settlers should benefit from the timber found there and to prevent a monopoly thereof by the first settlers, the Act provided that the timbered sections should be divided into wood lots and that one lot should be apportioned to each homestead of 160 acres. This regulation applied only to surveyed lands. The right to take timber or unsurveyed lands was regulated by permit, a system which still exists.

DISPOSAL OF DOMINION LANDS.

Under the powers contained in the Dominion Lands Act of 1872, and succeeding Acts, and regulations based thereon the Dominion lands of Western Canada have been disposed of in the following way.

- (1) Half breed scrip.
- (2) Hudson's Bay reservations of one-twentieth of the surveyed land south of North Saskatchewan River.
- (3) Lands reserved for education (school lands).
- (4) Military bounty lands.
- (5) Homesteads and pre-emptions to actual settlers.
- (6) Grants to railway companies.
- (7) Sales to colonization companies.
- (8) Special sales of agricultural lands not exceeding one section; also sales of fractional quarter sections in special cases.
- (9) Sale or lease of grazing, hay or marsh lands under special regulations of Governor-in-Council.
- (10) Sale or lease of mining lands (i. e., containing salt, petroleum, natural gas, coal, gold, silver, copper, iron or other minerals) under special regulations of Governor-in-Council.
- (11) Grants to original white settlers who were born in the North West Territories or were resident prior to March 8, 1869. This time was extended to July 15, 1870, by 38 Vict. C. 52.
- (12) Indian Reservations.
- (13) Soldier settlement grants.

HALF BREED SCRIP.

By the Manitoba Act (Sec. 31) provision was made for the first time for land grants to the half breeds of that Province. An area of 1,400,000 acres was set apart to be distributed under regulations of the Governor-in-Council. Every half breed resident in Manitoba on July 15, 1870, and every child of such half breed became entitled to participate in the grant of 1,400,000 acres. These grants were free from any services or payment.

The claims of the half breeds in the North West Territories were first dealt with in 1879. The Dominion Lands Act of that year provided for the satisfaction of the claims of the half breeds resident in the North

West Territories outside the limits of Manitoba on July 15, 1870, by land grants and the issue of scrip redeemable in land. These people had settled mainly along the lake and river fronts. When this enactment was executed by the O. C. March 30, 1885, those half breeds in bona fide possession were given plots of not more than 40 acres each along the water fronts at \$1.00 per acre. In addition they were allowed to select 160 acres from lands open for homestead and pre-emption entry as near as possible to their holdings. The children of half breeds born before July 15, 1870, and 1885 were given certificates entitling them to select 240 acres from any lands open for homestead entry.

A commission was appointed in 1885 consisting of Messrs W. P. R. Street, Roger Goulet and A. E. Forget to ascertain the number of half breeds in the North West Territories. On certificates issued by the commission, scrip was issued to 854 heads of families, the representatives of 264 deceased heads of families, 1,862 children, and the representatives of 466 children born in the North West Territories before July 15, 1870, but who died before 1885. The whole amount of scrip issued represented 61,020 acres of land and \$663,474.00 in money scrip redeemable in land.

HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY'S LANDS.

By the deed of surrender from the Hudson's Bay Company in 1870, to the Crown, one-twentieth of the surveyed lands of the North West Territories, south of the North Saskatchewan River, was reserved to the Company. The right to claim the one-twentieth remained good for fifty years from the date of surrender, but all claims to lands in any township had to be made within 10 years from the date of survey. The company retained all its trading posts and stores and in addition was allowed to select parcels of land in the vicinity of the posts, the aggregate of which was not to exceed 50,000 acres throughout the whole of the North-West. The fraction of one-twentieth of the surveyed lands is computed as follows: In every fifth row of townships the whole of sections 8 and 26 and in each and every of the other townships, the whole of section 8 and three-quarters of section 26. Out of a total of 6,556,000 acres surveyed, 2,175,700 acres are situated in Alberta. Up to March 31, 1922, the company has sold a total acreage in Western Canada of 3,544,580, for the sum of \$43,345,000.

SCHOOL LANDS.

Sections 11 and 29 are set apart in every township surveyed by the Dominion Government in Alberta, Saskatchewan and Manitoba and the North West Territories for the support of education. The lands are held in trust by the Dominion for the provinces. They are sold from time to time and the money invested in securities of Canada. The interest arising

therefrom after deducting the cost of management is paid annually to the provinces within which such lands are situated. The money is applied exclusively to the support of public schools. Up to March 31, 1922, the area of school lands disposed of by the Dominion Government in the Province of Alberta, after making deductions for canceled sales, was 952,164 acres, valued at \$13,161,415. The rate of interest allowed the Province was raised from 5 per cent to 6 per cent in 1918.

MILITARY BOUNTY LAND SCRIP.

By O. C., April 25, 1871, each officer and man of the Ontario and Quebec battalions of Rifles then stationed in Manitoba was given a free grant of 160 acres without actual residence.

By 48-49 Vict. C. 93, grants of land were given to the militiamen engaged in the suppression of the half-breed and Indian rising of 1885 in the North West Territories. Each member of the militia was given the right to homestead 320 acres in any even numbered section of unoccupied Dominion Lands, provided application was made for entry before August 1, 1886. In the following year the same rights were conferred upon members of the irregular forces engaged in suppressing the rebellion (49 Vict. C. 29). By the Volunteer Bounty Act, 1908 (7-8 Edw. VII. C. 67) every volunteer domiciled in Canada who served with the British forces in South Africa during the years from 1899 to 1902 became entitled to a grant of two adjoining quarter sections, lands available for homestead entry, subject to homesteading conditions. Provision was made for the issue of scrip instead of land. No more than 20% of the land in any one township could be opened for Military Bounty Scrip. The right to obtain military bounty grants expired October 31, 1913.

HOMESTEAD AND PRE-EMPTION LANDS.

The first homestead and pre-emption regulations were authorized by O. C., April 25, 1871. These remained in force until 1879. Up to that year both odd and even numbered sections were open for entry. In that year the Government put into operation the policy of railway land subsidies and reserved for this purpose every odd numbered section. Pre-emption privileges were abolished on January 1, 1890. After 1896 the Government forced the railway companies to select all the lands they had earned and discontinued the policy of encouraging railway construction by land grants. On September 1, 1908, odd and even numbered sections were again thrown open for homestead entry. Pre-emption rights were revived at the same time to apply to that part of Alberta and Saskatchewan comprised within the following boundaries:

“Commencing where the west line of range twenty-six west of the fourth principal meridian intersects the international boundary; thence

east along the international boundary to its intersection with the Minneapolis, St. Paul and Sault Ste. Marie Railway; thence northwest along the said railway line to its junction with the main line of the Canadian Pacific Railway; thence west along the Canadian Pacific Railway to the third principal meridian; thence north along the third principal meridian to the north line of township forty-four to the Calgary and Edmonton Railway; thence south along the Calgary and Edmonton Railway to its intersection with the west line of range twenty-six west of the fourth meridian; thence south along the west line of the said range twenty-six to the international boundary." Pre-emption privileges were abolished in 1914.

Regulations governing homestead entry remain substantially the same as those first issued in 1870. Every male person over 18 years of age who is a British subject, or declares his intention to become such is entitled to obtain entry upon payment of a fee of \$10.00. A widow having minor children of her own dependent upon her may make homestead entry. Application must be made by the applicant in person at the Dominion Land Office or sub-office in which the land is situated. Entry by proxy is permitted only in the case of a father, son, brother, or sister.

RAILWAY LAND GRANTS.

In 1879 the government of Canada set apart 100,000,000 acres of land in the North West Territories for the support of railway construction in Western Canada (O. C. June 28, 1879). The land regulations of 1871 were superseded by new regulations, authorized by orders in Council dated July 9, and October 14, 1879. Odd numbered sections in surveyed territory were reserved for railways. Special regulations were adopted to apply to lands situated within 110 miles on each side of the Canadian Pacific Railway. For the purposes of the regulations the line of the Canadian Pacific Railway was assumed to follow the fourth base line west of the Red River. The country on both sides of the railway line was divided into belts as follows:

- (1) Belt A— 5 miles wide on each side of railway line.
- (2) Belt B—15 miles wide on each side of Belt A.
- (3) Belt C—20 miles wide on each side of Belt B.
- (4) Belt D—20 miles wide on each side of Belt C.
- (5) Belt E—50 miles wide on each side of Belt D.

The lands in Belt A were withdrawn from homestead or pre-emption entry, and placed on sale at \$6.00 per acre. In the other belts the odd numbered sections were reserved for railway purposes and offered for sale at the following rates: Belt B, \$5 per acre; belt C, \$3.50 per acre; belt D, \$2.00 per acre; belt E, \$1.00 per acre. These prices were reduced shortly afterwards.

The even numbered sections were opened for homestead and pre-emption entry. A homesteader was entitled to a free grant of 80 acres.

The prices for pre-emption were as follows in the different belts: Belts B & C, \$2.50 per acre; belt D, \$2.00 per acre; belt E, \$1.00 per acre. These regulations were changed by order in Council October 9, 1879, raising the homestead and pre-emption entries to 160 acres each. These regulations were changed again in 1881 (O. C., December 23, 1881) and again in 1889, but the general rule of classifying the lands of the North West Territories with respect to their proximity to the C. P. R. was preserved.

The regulations of 1881 classified the land as follows:

- (a) Class A—Lands for 24 miles on each side of the main line of the C. P. R. or any branch thereof.
- (b) Class B—Lands within 12 miles on each side of any other railway.
- (c) Class C—Lands south of the main line of the C. P. R. not included in Class A or B.
- (d) Class D—Lands beyond those belts.

The regulations of 1889 recognized two classes, namely:

- (a) Class A—All lands in the North West Territories south of the main line of the C. P. R.
- (b) Class B—Lands not included in Class A.

GRANTS TO COLONIZATION COMPANIES.

The regulations of 1881 introduced a new principle in disposing of the public lands. Provision was made for sales of large tracts of land to colonization companies. The lands were to be selected from Class D mentioned above, i. e., lands situated at least 24 miles north of the main line of the C. P. R. or within 12 miles of any branch railway. Two plans were adopted:

Plan No. 1—Odd numbered sections were sold at \$2.00 per acre payable in five years. In return the companies agreed to place within five years from the date of purchase two settlers on each section. The settler received 160 acres as a homestead and the right to purchase the adjoining quarter at \$2.00 per acre. At the end of the five-year period the company received a rebate of one-half the original purchase price of the odd numbered sections.

Plan No. 2—To encourage settlement by capitalists who desired to cultivate larger farms than under the first plan large tracts in Class D were sold at \$2.00 per acre cash upon the condition that the colonization company would agree to place 128 settlers in each township within five years. If this condition was fulfilled the company received a rebate of one-half the original purchase price. By the end of 1883 over 26 companies were operating in the North West Territories and had purchased 2,973,978 acres of land from the Government for the sum of \$857,455. An inspection of 12 out of the 26 indicated that 664 heads of families had been attracted to the country by the Companies. This method of settlement was never popular with the people of Western Canada. By Order-in-Council June 30,

1886, the Government terminated the contracts made with the Colonization Companies, and the policy was abandoned.

LEASES AND SALES OF LAND.

Leasehold privileges extend to the following classes of Dominion lands:

- (a) Grazing lands, but not suitable for agriculture.
- (b) Hay and marsh lands.
- (c) Mineral lands and lands containing quarriable stone.
- (d) Irrigation lands.
- (e) Lands required for development of water power.

These privileges have continued since the first land act of 1872, though they have been varied from time to time by Order-in-Council to suit the growing conditions of settlement.

Sales or leases of any lands other than mineral lands do not convey title to the following minerals: Salt, petroleum, coal, gold, silver, copper, iron or other minerals.

Agricultural lands may be purchased in parcels not exceeding 640 acres under regulations made by the Governor-in-Council. Fractional quarters of less than 80 acres may be sold to an adjoining homesteader or owner at a rate not less than \$3.00 per acre.

Soldier Settlement Land.

The return and discharge of many thousands of Canadian soldiers during the late war led to a new scheme for settling Dominion lands and increasing production, so necessary for the prosecution of the war by the Allies. By the Soldier Settlement Act of 1917, the Dominion Government undertook to assist soldier settlers with cash loans not exceeding \$2,500, according to the needs of the individual soldier making homestead entry or purchasing patented lands. Power was also given to the Government to reserve any Dominion lands for the exclusive entry of soldier settlers.

The scope of this scheme was enlarged in 1919. Under the Act of that year large powers were given to the Soldier Settlement Board to reserve any Dominion lands, affect compulsory purchase of private lands for soldier settlers, to train soldiers in farming, establish training stations in agriculture and home economics for settlers and provide subsistence allowances for such settlers and their dependents during the course of training. The Board was given power to sell the land so acquired to soldier settlers for actual farming operations conducted by the purchaser. The maximum size of a farm was 320 acres. The soldier settler was required to pay 10 per cent of the purchase price at the time of the sale to him, and the balance was spread over twenty-five equal, annual instalments, with interest at 5 per cent on the amortization plan, with the privilege of full payment at any time. In addition the Board could purchase live stock and sell the same to the settler for cash, or four consecutive, equal, annual instalments,

commencing not later than three years from the day of the sale of the stock to the settler, with interest at 5 per cent. Advances for permanent improvements could be made up to \$1,000, repayable in twenty-five equal, annual instalments.

Under this Act 453,339 acres of Dominion lands have been settled on by 1,675 soldiers, and 691,959 acres of private or patented lands had been purchased for 3,542 soldiers in the Province of Alberta by the end of 1921.

Coal, Oil and Gas Lands:

The first regulations re coal lands were issued in 1881 (Order-in-Council December 17, 1881) and provided for twenty-one year leases of areas not greater than 320 acres, subject to a ground rent of 25 cents per acre, and a royalty of 10 cents per ton upon all coal taken out of the mine. Under these regulations it was found that lessees were consolidating their holdings and bringing large areas under one management. To obviate this practice the Government, by Order-in-Council December 26, 1882, discontinued leasing in districts where the known existence of coal close to facilities for reaching a market indicated them as early centres of the coal industry. These districts were the Souris River, Bow River, Belly River and Saskatchewan River coal districts. Provision was also made for converting leaseholds into freeholds. By Order-in-Council March 2, 1883, the lands in the above coal districts were opened for sale in areas not exceeding 320 acres to one person at the rate of \$10 per acre for surface and under rights. The regulations were changed again four years later. By Order-in-Council, October 30, 1887, all minerals were reserved to the Crown in patents granted in respect of the surface rights of Dominion lands.

These regulations continued until 1907. The development of Western Canada created a great demand for coal lands, consequently the Government withdrew all coal lands from sale and established a leasing system again. By Order-in-Council March 9, 1907, new regulations were proclaimed which, with minor changes, are still in force.

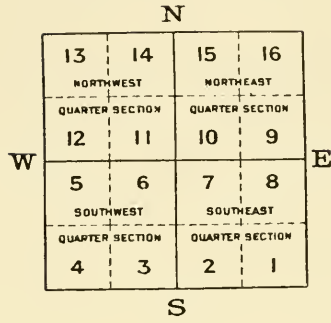
Oil and gas lands are subject to regulations similar to those regulating the use of coal lands. These lands may be leased only for a period of twenty-one years, subject to certain conditions respecting drilling and development, at a rental of 50 cents per acre for the first year, and a rental of \$1.00 per acre for each subsequent year during the term of the lease. The maximum area which may be acquired, except by assignment, by one person or corporation is 1,920 acres.

SYSTEM OF SURVEY.

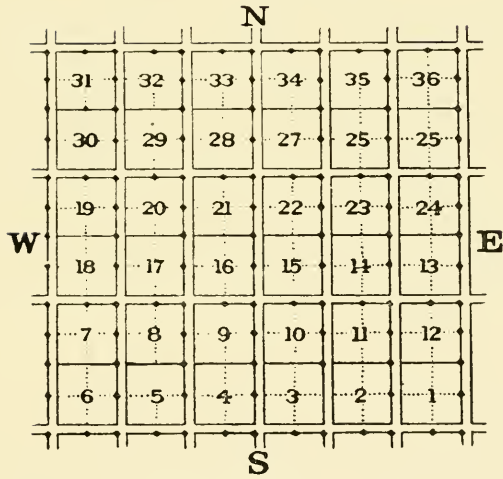
The Township:

Dominion lands are laid off in quadrilateral townships containing thirty-six sections of one square mile each, together with road allowances of

PLAN OF A SECTION



PLAN OF A TOWNSHIP



Monuments shown thus.....•

one chain and fifty links wide between townships and sections. Road allowances running east and west are two miles apart, while those running north and south are one mile apart.

Meridians and Base Lines:

Townships are numbered from the First Base Line, which is the 49th parallel of latitude, northward, and lie in ranges west of certain initial meridians, the first of which is called the Principal Meridian. This is a line run from a point ten miles west of Pembina, near where the Red River crosses the International Boundary on latitude 49 North, in 1869. It runs a few miles west of Winnipeg. The number of ranges between the meridians varies from 30 at the First Base Line or township one to 26 at township 80, decreasing with increase of latitude. There are six initial meridian lines west of the First Meridian. The Fourth forms the boundary between Alberta and Saskatchewan. The Fifth runs a few miles west of Edmonton. The Sixth, the last to be surveyed, lies within 70 miles of boundary between Alberta and British Columbia.

Base lines are surveyed parallel to Latitude 49, every 24 miles. Correction lines or those resulting from the convergence of meridians lie midway between the base lines. Each section contains 640 acres more or less, and is divided into four quarter sections containing 160 acres more or less, which are described as S. E., S. W., N. W., and N. E. quarters. The sections are numbered from the south-east corner westward in each township, the second tier of sections being numbered from west to east and so on alternately throughout the township, the last section 36, being situated in the north-east corner of the township, as shown in the diagram below. The sections are subdivided into quarters. By this system it is possible by a very simple formula to designate the exact location of any quarter section in any part of the three Provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan or Alberta.

Each section is deemed to be divided in 40 acre areas known as legal subdivisions, and numbered and bounded as in the diagram below.

LAND SITUATION TODAY.

The total area of Alberta is placed by the Department of the Interior at 163,382,400 acres. Of this area 85,756,935 acres have been surveyed and the disposition of such lands is shown in the following statement at the end of the fiscal year, March 31, 1922:

Area under homestead (including military homesteads)	18,300,000	acres
Area under pre-emption, purchased homesteads sales, Half-Breed scrip, bounty grants, special grants, etc.	3,895,100	“
Area granted to railway companies	13,120,014	“
Area granted to Hudson's Bay Company	2,175,700	“
Area of School Land Endowment (1-18 of area surveyed in sections)	3,755,700	“

Area sold subject to reclamation by drainage -----	32,505	Acres
Area sold under irrigation system -----	980,850	"
Area under timber berths -----	1,293,900	"
Area under grazing leases -----	2,933,400	"
Area of forest reserves and parks -----	16,754,000	"
Area reserved for forestry purposes (inside surveyed tract) -----	1,677,500	"
Area of road allowances -----	1,287,200	"
Area of parish and river lots -----	118,564	"
Area of Indian reserves -----	1,367,974	"
Area of water-covered lands (inside surveyed tracts), -----	2,302,200	"
Area now available for entry -----	15,460,100	"
Area of Indian Reserves surrendered -----	302,228	"
<hr/>		
Total surveyed area -----	85,756,935	"
Surveyed area:		
Land -----	83,454,735	"
Water -----	2,302,200	"
<hr/>		
Total -----	85,756,935	"
Unsurveyed area:		
Land -----	75,423,925	"
Water -----	2,201,540	"
<hr/>		
Total -----	77,625,465	"
Total area:		
Land -----	158,878,660	"
Water -----	4,503,740	"
<hr/>		
Grand Total -----	163,382,400	"

CHAPTER XIII.

POPULATION, ABORIGINES, INDIAN TREATIES AND IMMIGRATION.

We have seen in the earlier chapters that Alberta was in the possession of several tribes of Indians when the first white travellers reached its borders. The various tribes represented branches of the three great Indian families or linguistic groups as follows:

Algonquian, western division, comprising Blackfeet (Siksika), Bloods, (Kainah), Peigans.

Algonquian, northern division, Crees, Plain Wood and Swampy.

Athapaskan, comprising Chipewyans, Beavers, Yellowknives, Dogribs and Hares. The Sarcees (Sarsi) who belong to this stock are politically allied to the Blackfoot Confederacy.

Siouan, comprising Assiniboinés or Stonies.

Other groups represented in the early history of the province are the Kutenai, the Iroquois, Gros Ventres or Atsina. The Iroquois were brought to the North Saskatchewan River by the North West Company about 1800.

The Blackfeet were the advance guard of the Algonquian emigration to the west. Mackenzie mentions them and says that about 1790 they occupied territory between the south and north Saskatchewan Rivers and were in slow migration toward the northwest encroaching on the Athapascans. This migration was deflected southward by the Crees, who having been joined with the Assiniboinés, sought the plains westward to hunt the buffalo, hence the unrelenting hostility between the two confederacies of the west. The pressure of the Crees upon the Blackfeet drove the latter finally to the country south of the south branch of the Saskatchewan. Until they were placed on Reserves in 1877 they roamed from the Cypress Hills to the Rocky Mountains and southward to the Missouri River. The Crees pushed northward as well as southward until they came in contact with the Chipewyans and Slaves along the Churchill River and on the shores of Lake Athabasca. After they obtained firearms from the fur traders they were able to drive these tribes from their hunting and fishing grounds, but were forced back again, when the Chipewyans succeeded in securing arms. The Blackfeet quickly adapted themselves from the sedentary life of their ancestors to the roving life of buffalo hunters. Once established on the plains of Southern Alberta they held it against invasion from every side, from the Crows, Flatheads and Kutenai of Montana and Washington, from the Assiniboinés of the Cypress

Hills and Wood Mountains and from the Crees of the north. In their raids to the south they secured horses and became famous for great herds of fine horses. The horse made them formidable in war and successful in the chase. They dwelt in tepees shifting periodically from place to place. They gave little attention to agriculture except the cultivation of a species of tobacco and they gathered camas roots in the foothills. The three main divisions lived independently of each other. Each had its own head chief, council, and sun dance. They worshipped the sun and a supernatural being known as Napi or Old Man, a sort of secondary creator. They laid their dead in trees or in tepees on some prominent hill. They were restless, aggressive, and predatory people and were constantly at war with all their neighbors. Their general attitude towards the Hudson's Bay Company was always one of doubtful friendship.

The Crees were divided into Wood, Plain and Swampy Crees according to the nature of the locality in which they lived. The Plain and Wood Crees lived in Alberta, but the Swampy Crees lived east of Lake Winnipeg in the marshy regions around Hudson's Bay. The Crees were always closely associated with the Hudson's Bay Company and regular visitors to the Company's posts. They were employed as hunters, canoe men and guides. The Crees worshipped a being akin to the Old Man of the Blackfeet, called Wisukatcak. They buried their dead in shallow graves, covering the same with stones or earth. If the deceased were a warrior or medicine man of renown, his body was laid on a scaffold.

The Chipewyans, Slaves, Beavers, the Sarsi and other tribes of the Athapascan family have shown little coherence and less power of maintaining their own culture than either the Crees or Blackfeet. They have assimilated the customs and arts of all the surrounding tribes.

From the advent of the white men, the Indian population steadily declined. Mackenzie estimated the Blackfeet in 1790 at 2,300 warriors or 9,000 souls. The smallpox scourge killed off large numbers in 1780, 1838, 1845, 1858 and 1859. Many died of measles in 1864. Smallpox raged among them again in 1870. Added to these calamities were the ravages of intemperance caused by American traders. To the American trader the only good Indian was a dead Indian and consequently the murderous proclivities of these outlaws were responsible for the death of many of the Indian population, e. g., in 1873 American outlaws shot 23 Assiniboines near the Cypress Hills as a pastime on the pretext of horse stealing. The Crees were estimated at about 15,000 when the fur traders entered the west about 1775. They have suffered terribly from smallpox especially in the outbreak of 1870.

When Canada took over the Hudson's Bay territory in 1870, one of the conditions of the surrender was that the Indian population would be justly and humanely dealt with. The people of Canada have sincerely and generously kept this pact. The Indian title to the lands of the plains and forests was recognized. Treaties were made with the various tribes,



DUCK CHIEF—BLACKFOOT INDIAN

reserves were given for permanent residence and in lieu of the hunting privileges, food and money have been regularly supplied. Many of the Indians, of course, are self sustaining and have acquired the arts of agriculture and civilized life. As far as Alberta is concerned, the first Treaty made with the Indians was signed in 1876 at Fort Carlton and Fort Pitt. This Treaty included the Indians of central Alberta, the Crees, Iroquois, Assiniboines and the few Chipewyans at Cold Lake. Treaty No. 7, was signed at Blackfoot Crossing in 1877. It included the three tribes of the Blackfeet, the Sarsi and the Stonies. The last Treaty was signed with the Indians of Northern Alberta in 1899 and included the Crees and Beavers of the Peace River District.

It is difficult to ascertain the names of the first actual white settlers, outside of the fur traders and missionaries, who came to the Province. Some of the first settlers, like James Gibbons, of Edmonton, are still alive. Tom Clover, accompanied by two men, Love and McFarlane, and others in the same party, came to the Province in 1864, and discovered placer gold in the North Saskatchewan River a few miles below Edmonton. The place has ever since been known as Clover Bar. Gold had been observed by Dr. Hector in 1858. That same autumn a party of miners travelled from Idaho via the Columbia Valley, Simpson Pass, to the Bow River Valley, along the present Banff-Windermere Highway to the open plains where they found a great Indian trail, and following it arrived at Rocky Mountain House. Of this party of fifteen, only James Gibbons and Sam Livingstone permanently settled in the country. Livingstone finally settled in Calgary. Gibbons invented what is still known along the Saskatchewan and rivers of the North, as "The Grizzly," a simple apparatus for separating gold from the gravel of the river. By 1868 there were about fifty gold workers on the North Saskatchewan.

The extinguishment of the Indian title was the prelude to railroad construction, immigration and settlement. At the time of the transfer of the North-West to Canada, there were very few white settlers in Alberta. These were generally found close to the Hudson's Bay posts at Edmonton, Lac Ste. Anne and Chipewyan. They were mostly men who had retired from the Hudson's Bay service to engage in free trade or in agriculture. There were also settlements at St. Albert and Victoria, but the inhabitants were mostly half-breeds. A number of Manitoba half-breeds, dissatisfied with the turn of events in that Province after Riel's first rebellion, moved Westward. A few of the half-breed families on the Red River reached Alberta and settled on the Battle River, in what is known today as the Camrose District. The Laboucan and the Selvais settlements on the Battle River were founded in this way. There were also half-breed settlements at Buffalo Lake, St. Albert, Beaver Lake, Frog Lake, Lac La Biche and White Fish Lake.

As soon as the survey for the C. P. R. was begun, settlers began to find their way along the projected route. The first to arrive in Alberta settled

in the Edmonton District in the expectation that the railway was to pass through or near the old trading post. In 1878 a number of settlers arrived at St. Albert from Peace River. Some of them, like the late William Cust of St. Albert, had spent several years washing gold from the gravels of the Peace River. The route of the C. P. R. was changed to cross the Rocky Mountains through the Kicking Horse Pass instead of through the Yellowhead Pass. Consequently settlement began to follow the new line. Medicine Hat, Silver City and Calgary began to grow in the early '80s. Silver City was so called on account of the supposed deposits of silver in the vicinity of Castle Mountain and rapidly surpassed Calgary. It grew in a few months into a city peopled with speculators and with prospectors from every mining camp from California to Alaska. Today the traveller on the Imperial Limited may have pointed out to him a scar or two on the mountain side or a few piles of weatherbeaten rubble that mark the location of the shadow city of those romantic days.

Shortly after the Mounted Police established Fort Macleod, farmers and ranchers began to take up land in the vicinity of the post. The discovery of coal on the Belly River marked the beginning of Lethbridge. As soon as the C. P. R. was completed as far as Calgary, the trails to Edmonton and Macleod were improved and year by year the land along the trails was taken up and small settlements founded at various points. The stopping places formed centres around which the settlement thrived. Some of these places like Red Deer Crossing, Battle River Crossing north of Calgary and High River, south of Calgary have grown into important points. With the construction of the railway north and south of Calgary, the settlement of the country became a reality. A steady stream of immigrants from Manitoba, Eastern Canada, British Isles, the United States and Central Europe set in and has continued ever since. In 1883 Calgary was a settlement of 300 people. At Morleyville on the C. P. R. west of Calgary there was a settlement of sixty people. On the trail from Calgary to Macleod there were two small settlements, viz., High River with fifty people and Willow Creek with twenty-five. Beyond Macleod at Pincher Creek there was another important settlement of eighty people and several ranches.

The first homestead patent in the North West Territories was issued to Thomas McKay of Prince Albert in April, 1883. On the completion of the C. P. R. north to Prince Albert from Regina and from Calgary to Edmonton, the Land Department of the railway company began an active campaign to attract settlers to the North-West, from Dakota and Washington territory. One of the first settlements in the country south of Lethbridge was that of sixty Mormon families from Utah who settled at Lee's Creek in 1887 and founded the Cardston district named after one of the principal settlers. By 1891 this colony had increased to 1,000 souls owning 23,000 head of cattle and 9,000 sheep. Since that time it has developed

into one of the most prosperous and populous districts in Alberta. In 1887 the Canadian Agricultural and Coal Co. of which Sir John Lister-Kaye was president, established a number of large and well equipped ranches and farms along the C. P. R. at Bantry, Namaka and Langdon.

After the rebellion of 1885 many settlers entered Alberta by way of Saskatoon and Battleford taking up land in the Sturgeon Valley north of Edmonton in 1886 and 1887. The next year a number of German families settled in the country west of Red Deer in Township 36, Ranges 2 and 3 west of the 5th Meridian, and in 1889 a large German immigration settled at Dunmore, Gleichen, Seven Persons and Josephsburg. A year or two later over 200 of these families moved northward and settled in the Stony Plain and Beaver Hills districts west and east of Edmonton.

The years 1891 and '92 witnessed the real beginning of immigration to Alberta. Eighty-five families of Austrians and Germans settled in the Stony Plain district. A land office was opened in Red Deer and during that summer 406 homestead entries were made. Forty-five families of Germans from Austria and Russia settled at Fort Saskatchewan, sixty families of German Baptists from South Russia settled southwest of Edmonton at Rabbit Hills and thirty-five families of Germans settled at Wetaskiwin in the same year. The next year thirty families of German Baptists from Russia settled in two townships around Leduc.

The territory between Edmonton and Calgary became the favorite area for settlement. In 1892, 3,134 settlers took up land along the Calgary and Edmonton Railway, 984 being from Eastern Canada, 620 from the United States and 220 from the British Isles.

Through the efforts of Bishop Grandin and Rev. Father Morin a large number of French Canadian settlers were attracted to Northern Alberta in the early '90s. This was part of a larger policy of the leaders of the French Canadians and the Roman Catholic Church in the West to place a sufficient number of settlers of that nationality and religion, in order to maintain the minority rights respecting the French language and the Catholic religion. Most of these settlers came from the old Province of Quebec. A few were repatriated French-Canadians and their sons from the United States. The first party arrived at Calgary in March, 1891, destined for St. Albert. They proceeded by sleighs to Red Deer, refusing to pay \$40 per car to the Canadian Pacific Railway Company for transporting their effects to the end of the steel, then at Red Deer. Here they were met by numerous sleighs sent by their compatriots at St. Albert to fetch the newcomers to their destination. By 1894 this was one of the most populous colonies in Alberta, comprising over 1,000 souls between St. Albert and Morinville. Other French-Canadian colonies were established in these years at Stony Plain, Sandy Lake, Granger, Vegreville, St. Pierre (now Villeneuve) and Beaumont, making in all about 2,000 of a French-Canadian population at various

points in Northern Alberta, owning 12,000 head of stock. Among these people were a number of settlers who had come from Belgium.

In May, 1892, the Canadian Pacific Railway Company offered for sale the odd numbered sections in the townships around Edmonton at prices from \$3 to \$15 per acre. This attracted a great many settlers. One firm in Edmonton sold 10,000 acres in two weeks. Land offices were opened at Calgary, Edmonton and Red Deer by the Company and many settlers were brought in from the Palouse country in the State of Washington and from Dakota, attracted by the prospects of mixed farming in the Edmonton district. Swedish homesteaders settled around Red Deer and south of the Battle River and many newcomers from Nebraska found homes in the vicinity of Olds. In the same year about sixty families from Parry Sound, Ontario, settled at Agricola and Partridge Hills and Edna in the country east of Edmonton; other settlements of this time included the Moravians at Bruderheim and Bruderfeldt and Scandinavians at Wetaskiwin and Camrose.

One of the most important of the foreign colonies to be established in Alberta consisted of a large immigration from Russia, Galicia and Bukowina. The movement of these people to Canada began in 1896. They settled in different parts of the North West Territories, but a great many came to Alberta, settling in a very fine agricultural district stretching from Fort Saskatchewan to Vermilion. These settlers were devoted to agriculture and made excellent progress in wealth and education. The census of 1916 showed there were 14,733 classed as Russians, 11,372 as Austrians, 9,389 as Galicians and 4,460 as Bukowinians in the Province of Alberta.

A most unique enterprise in the colonization of Alberta was the migration of nearly 2,000 people from England to the district now known as Lloydminster between the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan in 1903. This colony was organized by Rev. I. M. Barr and was for many years known as the Barr colony and also by the terms The All British Colony or sometimes The Britannia Colony with the town of Lloydminster as its capital. When it arrived at Halifax the colony comprised 1,964 souls. It took thirty cars to transport their baggage. They proceeded by rail to Saskatoon. The long trail overland to their homesteads was the most difficult and trying part of their journey. Mr. Barr deserted the colony before it was established but an able leader was found in the Rev. George E. Lloyd. With a committee of twelve good men homesteads were allotted to the heads of families and after many vicissitudes they succeeded in establishing the colony. Though many of these people were ill adapted to the pioneering life of the plains and though suffering attended their efforts to build homes in a new land, they have succeeded in founding one of the best settlements in Western Canada. They excel in the production of grain and live stock, a tribute to the resources of the district and to the adaptability and pluck of the British settler.



YELLOW HORSE—HEAD CHIEF OF BLACKFOOT
INDIANS

STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

With the turn of the new century the general prosperity that accompanied the world-wide rise of prices was reflected in a great wave of development that swept over the entire North-West. The rich wheat lands of Alberta and Saskatchewan, the discovery of the vast deposits of coal in Alberta, began to attract settlers by thousands every year from every land in the Old and New Worlds. The tide of immigration was followed by a great influx of capital. The population of Alberta grew from 73,021 in 1901, to 184,412 in 1906, to 385,000 in 1911, to 496,000 in 1916, and to 588,454 in 1921.

The statistics of the population throw many instructive side lights on the history of the Province. The remaining part of this chapter will be devoted to a few elementary statistics gleaned from the Census Reports of the Dominion Government.

The first census of the North West Territories was taken in 1881. The population at that time comprised 6,000 whites, and 50,000 natives (Indians and half-bloods). The population of that part of the Territories now included in the Province of Alberta was 18,075. Since that time a census has been taken every ten years, and by the Alberta Act, 1905, a census must be taken in the middle of every decennial period until the population reaches 2,000,000. This is due to the fact that the Provincial subsidy is paid partly on a per capita basis; hence the necessity of ascertaining the population at frequent periods. Pursuant to this law, a census has been taken in 1906, in 1911, in 1916, and in 1921.

The table next below deals with the number of families and sex of the population at different census periods:

Census	No. Families	No. Males	No. Females	Total Population
1881-----	3,802	8,964	9,111	18,075
1885-----	3,965	8,342	7,191	15,533
1891-----	5,232	14,649	10,628	25,277
1901-----	16,305	41,019	32,003	73,022
1906-----	44,922	108,283	77,129	185,412
1911-----	90,346	223,989	150,674	374,663
1916-----	119,510	277,256	219,269	496,525
1921-----	141,190	324,208	264,256	588,454

The rapid increase in the population of Alberta is due principally to immigration. According to the census of 1916 there were only 125,603 persons resident in the Province at that date who were born in the Province. Since the formation of the Province, Alberta has drawn a larger immigration than any of the other Prairie Provinces, as the following returns will indicate:

IMMIGRATION TO PRAIRIE PROVINCES 1906-1920.

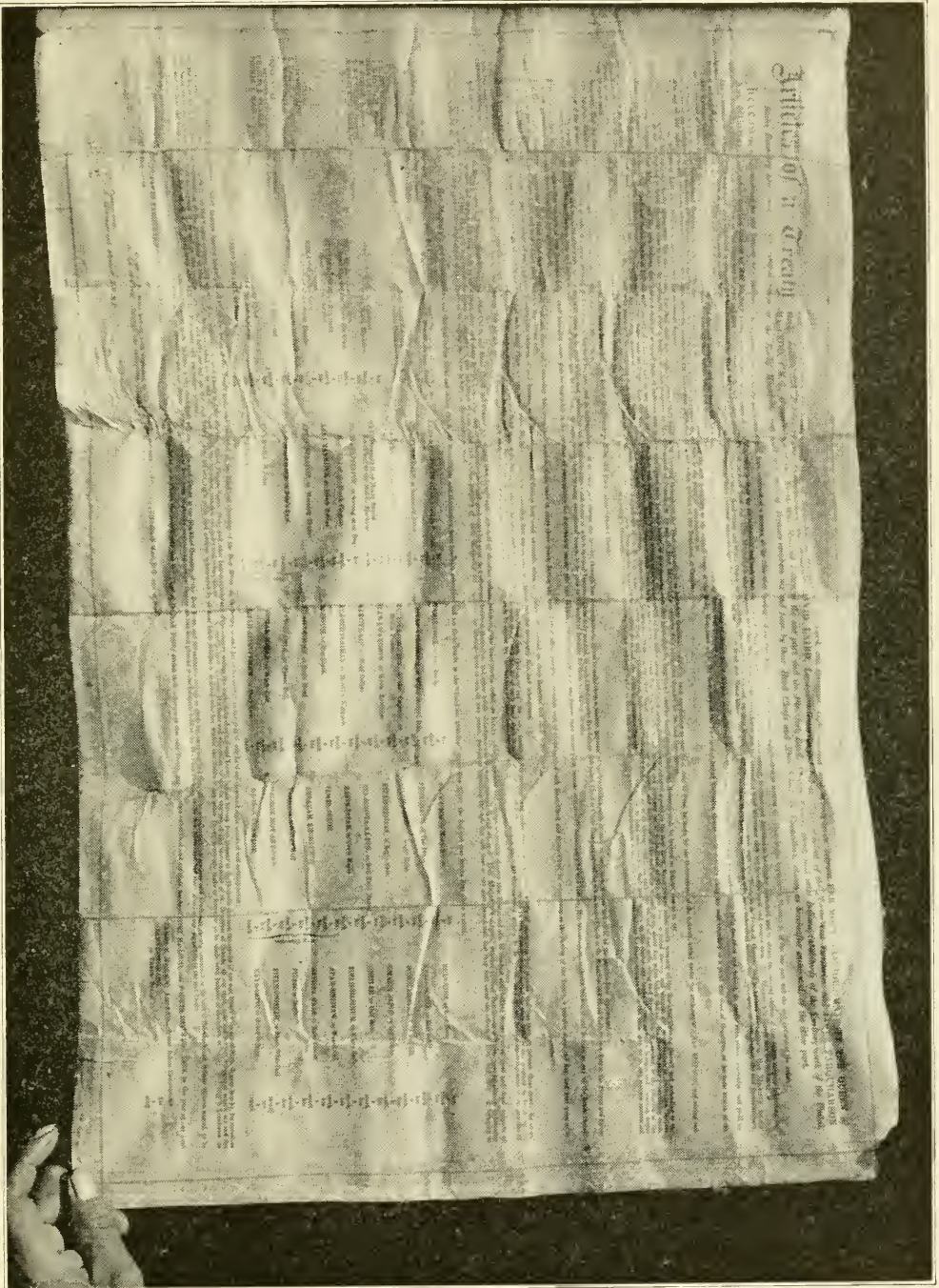
Fiscal Year.	Alberta.	Manitoba.	Saskatchewan.
1905-06-----	26,177	35,648	28,728
1906-07-----	17,559	20,273	15,307
1907-08-----	31,477	39,789	30,590
1908-09-----	27,651	19,702	22,146
1909-10-----	42,509	21,049	29,218
1910-11-----	44,782	34,653	40,763
1911-12-----	45,957	43,477	46,158
1912-13-----	48,073	43,813	45,147
1913-14-----	43,741	40,999	41,640
1914-15-----	18,263	16,173	13,196
1915-16-----	7,215	6,001	3,487
1916-17-----	12,418	9,874	5,247
1917-18-----	16,821	12,382	6,252
1918-19-----	11,640	4,862	8,552
1919-20-----	20,000	11,287	14,287

Fears have been expressed at various times by men of affairs and publicists that there is a danger of foreign immigration swamping the native born and destroying the distinctive character of Canadian laws and institutions. Up to the present time such fears are groundless. There is enough Anglo-Saxon blood in Alberta to dilute the foreign blood and complete the process of assimilation to the mutual advantage of both elements. The census of 1916 and the census of 1921 show in a general way the ethnological groups that are fusing to produce a rich and virile nationality in Alberta, as is true throughout the entire West.

BIRTHPLACE OF THE PEOPLE OF ALBERTA.

	1916	1921
Total population -----	496,525	588,454
Canada -----	241,357	315,090
British Isles -----	86,699	97,505
British Possessions -----	1,483	1,847
United States -----	91,674	99,879
Europe -----	71,580	69,765
Asia -----	3,042	3,975
Other Countries -----	-----	389

The distribution of the population in rural and urban communities shows that the cities are growing relatively faster than the rural areas as the subjoined table will show:



TREATY NO. 7, 1877

	1921	1916	1911	1906	1901
Rural -----	365,550	307,776	232,726	127,379	54,033
Urban -----	222,904	188,749	141,937	58,033	18,989
Total -----	588,454	496,525	374,663	185,412	73,022
Percentage of Rural population--	71.27	61.9	62.1	68.6	73.9

The principal religions are shown in the following table. The census of 1921 showed 64 distinct religions besides 1,615 persons belonging to unspecified sects. The Presbyterians stand first with 120,868 members and adherents. Then follow in order Anglicans, 98,395; Roman Catholics, 97,178; Methodists, 89,070; Lutherans, 60,573; Greek Church, 35,815; Baptists, 27,829; Mormons, 11,373.

PRINCIPAL RELIGIONS OF THE PEOPLE OF ALBERTA AS SHOWN BY CENSUS OF
1891, 1901, 1911, 1916 AND 1921.

Religion.	1921	1916	1911	1901	1891
Anglicans -----	98,395	76,275	55,628	9,634	4,817
Baptists -----	27,829	23,440	19,491	3,010	523
Congregationalists -----	3,228	2,694	2,628	364	48
Greek Church -----	35,815	28,853	18,149	4,633	----
Jews -----	3,186	2,797	1,207	242	12
Lutherans -----	60,573	53,304	43,311	5,925	816
Mennonites -----	3,125	1,529	1,524	522	----
Methodists -----	89,070	77,659	61,844	10,125	2,755
Mormons -----	11,373	9,580	9,793	3,212	----
Presbyterians -----	120,868	91,216	66,351	11,597	4,108
Roman Catholics -----	97,178	80,647	62,193	15,464	6,034
Salvation Army -----	1,773	1,248	1,082	90	59
All others -----	----	----	20,119	4,304	493
Unspecified -----	----	----	4,699	3,187	4,560

CHAPTER XIV.

CHURCH HISTORY IN ALBERTA.

INTRODUCTORY.

Missionary enterprise in Western Canada began with the Jesuit priests who accompanied the expeditions of Verendrye. Fathers Mesaiger, Aulneau and Coquart were the first heralds of the Cross west of the Great Lakes. But it was not until the coming of the Selkirk settlers to the Red River that permanent missions were established. Acting upon a petition from the people of Red River in 1817 to Monsignor Plessis, the Roman Catholic Bishop of Quebec, Rev. Joseph Norbert Provencher and Rev. Joseph Nicholas Dumoulin arrived at Red River in July, 1818, and founded the first permanent mission in Western Canada at what is now the City of St. Boniface.

The Anglican Church followed in 1820. Rev. John West was sent from England by the Hudson's Bay Company and the Church Missionary Society to Red River, to minister to the Protestant settlers of the Selkirk Colony. From the Red River the work begun by these pioneers has spread to the Saskatchewan, the Athabaska, the MacKenzie and the Far North. It was not until 1840 that the Methodist or Wesleyan Church began to occupy the Western field, establishing the first missions at Ross-ville, near Norway House and at Edmonton, under Rev. James Evans and Rev. Robert Rundle. Eleven years later Rev. John Black, a Presbyterian minister from Upper Canada, founded the Parish of Kildonan, the cradle of Presbyterianism in Western Canada. In a sense the Presbyterian Church may be credited with the first permanent missionary in the West. James Sutherland, a Selkirk settler, who arrived at Red River in 1813, was invested with special authority to administer baptism, solemnize marriage and to expound the scriptures. The three denominations alluded to were well established in every part of Rupert's Land and the Indian Territories before these territories were united to the Dominion of Canada in 1870. The Baptist Church was the next of the principal denominations to establish in the West in 1873. Lutherans, Moravians, Mormons, Congregationalists, Jews and the Greek Church grew up with the settlement of the country after the Rebellion of 1885—an epochal year in the history of the West.

The glowing pageant of the history of Western Canada exhibits many characters who have played an heroic part in laying the foundations of

civilization in the Great Lone Land. In that illustrious procession there are no more fascinating or compelling figures than the early missionaries. For the joy of bearing the message of life to the savages and the pioneers of the plains, these sainted messengers endured perils and privations inconceivable—perils of travel on the storm-beaten trail, perils of the lake and the river, perils of starvation and disease.

In the paragraphs that follow in this chapter, the men and the achievements of the principal denominations are dealt with in the order in which these denominations became identified with the Province of Alberta.

METHODIST MISSIONS.

As we have noted at the beginning of the chapter the first missions of the Wesleyan or Methodist Church in Western Canada were established in 1840. In that year a party of missionaries under Rev. James Evans left Montreal to establish stations at different points in the West from Rainy Lake to the Rocky Mountains. Mr. Evans was an Englishman who had spent some time among the Indian missions of Upper Canada. He was invited by the Wesleyan Missionary Society of England to take charge of Wesleyan Missions in Western Canada. At the same time three young men—Rev. George Barnley, Rev. Wm. Mason and Rev. Robert T. Rundle—were sent from England to assist him, under the auspices of the Society, and chiefly at the expense and under the protection of the Hudson's Bay Company. Evans accepted the invitation and brought with him two young Objibway Indians, Peter Jacobs and Henry B. Steinhauer.

The missions established and the missionaries in charge were as follows:

Norway House—Rev. James Evans, superintendent, and Peter Jacobs.
Moose Factory and Abittibi—Rev. George Barnley.

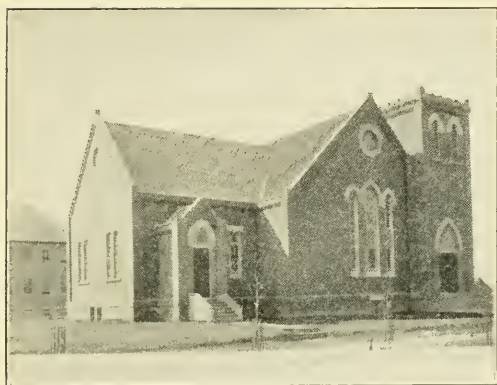
Rainy Lake and Fort Alexander—Rev. Wm. Mason and Henry B. Steinhauer.

Edmonton and Rocky Mountain House—Rev. Robert Rundle.

Rundle was the first missionary to visit what is now Alberta and to establish missions among the Indians of this part of the West. He reached Edmonton September 1st, 1840. He was given quarters in the Fort and supplied with the necessities of life by the Hudson's Bay Company, a custom followed by the Company throughout its wide territory. In the course of his ministry Rundle visited Beaver Lake, Rocky Mountain House, the Blackfeet on the Bow River and the Stoneys in the vicinity of Banff. He camped for a number of weeks at the foot of Cascade Mountain in 1841, and ascended the mountain that now bears his name. At the Mountain House he met Maskepetoon, the great peace chief of the Wood Crees, and accepted an invitation to visit the chief at the Red Deer. This visit culminated in the chief's conversion. Other notable Indian



First Presbyterian Church



First Baptist Church



McDougall Church



Holy Trinity Church
CHURCHES OF EDMONTON

neophytes of Rundle were Broken Arm, Stephen Kecheyees and Pakan; also Peter Erasmus, a half-breed, still living and long employed as missionary and interpreter at Whitefish Lake. During his periods of residence at Fort Edmonton, Rundle held school twice a day in the Fort.

He established a mission at Pigeon Lake under Benjamin Sinclair, which was destroyed by the Blackfeet in 1845. In that year we find him at Fort Carlton where Paul Kane met him. He left the country in 1848, and died in England in 1886.

During his superintendency of Wesleyan Missions, Evans visited Fort Chipewyan, Isle a la Crosse, Fort Pitt, Fort Carlton and many of the principal fur posts on the Churchill River as far east as York Factory. Endowed with a natural aptitude for linguistic study Evans was the originator of the syllabic system of the Cree language, which has been one of the great factors in the success of Indian missions by all Christian denominations in Western Canada and America. Evans made his first type from lead taken from tea chests and old bullets, carving the letters with his pocket knife. Ink he made from soot; paper from birch bark and with his own hands built a rude press with which he printed the first characters of his hymn collections and Scripture translations. This system is based upon a form of phonetic shorthand and is so simple that by its use it is possible to teach an Indian to read and write his own language in a few weeks. The Methodist Missionary Society saw the great importance of such an invention, and types, paper and press were sent from England to Evans' headquarters at Rossville. The influence of the new learning spread far and wide. The Anglican and Roman Catholic Churches adopted it. It gave an incentive to invent other similar systems for the Athabaskan and Blackfeet tribes.

The labors of this great pioneer missionary in Western Canada had a tragic ending. During one of his trips to a neighboring mission, he accidentally shot and killed his beloved interpreter, Thomas Hassell, an educated Chipewyan. Overcome by grief he left the country and died in England November 23, 1846. His place at Rossville was taken by Rev. Wm. Mason, who had labored there since 1844.

In 1854 Indian missions established in Western Canada by the Wesleyan Missionary Society were transferred to the Methodist Church of Canada, and soon the splendid work inaugurated by Evans was taken up by one who measured up to him in heroism, in adaptability to pioneer conditions, in missionary zeal and power over the Indian tribes. This was the Rev. George McDougall, the father of Methodism in Alberta. Mr. McDougall was commissioned in 1860 by the Methodist Conference of Upper Canada to take charge of Methodist Missions in Western Canada with headquarters at Rossville. He was, by this appointment, chairman of a vast district embracing stations at Oxford House, Rossville, Carlton. Edmonton, Rocky Mountain House, Whitefish Lake and Lac la Pluie.

During the interval from 1854 to 1862 the work in Alberta was carried on by Rev. Thomas Woolsey, and Rev. Henry B. Steinhauer, assisted by Rev. Benjamin Sinclair and Peter Erasmus. Woolsey and Steinhauer arrived at Edmonton September 26th, 1855. Mr. Steinhauer was stationed at Lac la Biche until 1857, when he moved to Whitefish Lake, establishing a mission there, where he labored until his death in the closing days of 1884. Mr. Woolsey made Edmonton his headquarters, being accorded the same privileges as Rundle—a private room and a place at the officers' mess. In 1857 he commenced an outpost mission at Pigeon Lake and during his residence in the territory visited at various intervals the Indians at Old Bow Fort, Rocky Mountain House, Smoky Lake and Whitefish Lake. In 1862 he determined to establish a mission at Smoky Lake, and erected a cabin. Before he left the country he translated a number of hymns and portions of Scripture, with the help of Peter Erasmus and Jonas, one of Rundle's converts of the Mountain Stoneys, for the people of that tribe. His knowledge of medicine gave him a great reputation among the camps. He left the country via York Factory in 1864 for England. Returning to Eastern Canada he continued in the ministry until 1885, when he was superannuated and died in 1894.

In 1862 Rev. George McDougall resolved to establish the Indian missions of what is now Alberta, but then known as the Saskatchewan Valley, on a more permanent basis. In that year he crossed the plains, accompanied by his son John, from Winnipeg via Batoche, Carlton and Pitt to Whitefish Lake, established about 1857. Here he met Rev. Henry B. Steinhauer. Several Indian houses had been built around the mission and many of the natives were strongly attached to the place. From Whitefish Lake he proceeded to Smoky Lake, about twenty miles north of the present village of Pakan, on the North Saskatchewan, where he found Rev. Thomas Woolsey. Exercising his authority as chairman of the district, he ordered this mission to be transferred to Victoria, now called Pakan. He then crossed the Saskatchewan at Victoria, taking with him Rev. Mr. Steinhauer and Peter Erasmus, and journeyed into the Battle River country to meet the Wood Crees, under their great chief, Maskepetoon, who, through the labors of Rundle and Woolsey, was able to read the Cree Bible. When Mr. McDougall visited him he was reading the 8th chapter of Romans. Mr. McDougall next visited Edmonton, where he was hospitably received by Chief Factors Christie and Hardisty, and proceeded down the Saskatchewan on September 9th for Rossville, on Lake Winnipeg.

In the following year Mr. McDougall returned to Victoria where, according to his orders, the new mission was established, the Indians moving from Smoky Lake with the mission. This was his headquarters until 1871. During the summer he visited the Stoneys South of the Battle River, going as far as the Big Canyon, on the Red Deer River. Seed was procured from Edmonton and Lac la Biche for the spring crops of 1864

at Victoria. After seeding, McDougall, with his son John, Mr. Steinhauer and Peter Erasmus visited the Stoneys again and proceeded far enough south to meet the Mountain Stoneys. The party returned home via Pigeon Lake, where a site was picked for another mission station, which was subsequently called Woodville. Two schools under the auspices of the Methodist Church were opened this year, one at Victoria and the other at Whitefish. These were the first Protestant schools in the Province. They are still carried on by the Methodist Church, and have done a splendid work for the Indian and half-breed children. The first teacher at Whitefish was Ira Snyder. Other teachers in this roll of honor were Miss E. A. Barrett, 1872-1874; Benjamin Sinclair and Edward R. and Robert Steinhauer, and J. A. Youmans.

In the following year the mission at Pigeon Lake was built, and put in charge of John McDougall, who for the next half century occupied a commanding position in the history of the Methodist Church and the Indian affairs of the North West Territories. The timber for the mission was taken out by the younger McDougall in the fall of 1864. He was in charge of this mission until 1869 when he was succeeded by Rev. Peter Campbell, who arrived at Edmonton September 21, 1868, having taken his wife and two small children across the plains from Fort Garry, driving ox carts. Mr. Campbell was one of a party of three young ministers brought out by Rev. George McDougall that year from Ontario. The other two were Rev. George Young and Rev. Egerton R. Young, famous in Manitoba and Saskatchewan. The former was the first Methodist minister of Winnipeg.

For the program of the summer of 1869 the principal missionaries of the Saskatchewan Valley organized a big gathering of the Indians on the plains with the object of promoting peace among rival tribes and educating them in loyalty and Christianity. The Indians and half-breeds from Lac la Biche, Mr. Steinhauer and his people from Whitefish Lake, Rev. George McDougall and the people from Victoria, the Wood Crees, John McDougall with the Wood and Mountain Stoneys, Hudson's Bay Company officers—almost the entire population of Central Alberta at the time—were included. Following the Indians over the plains was a favorite method followed by all the missionaries—before the Indians were placed on reserves—Roman Catholic, Methodist and Anglican, to bring the gospel to the natives and acquaint them with the policies of the Government. But this gathering including so many tribes, was the first effort of the kind and an anxious experiment for Superintendent McDougall and his son John. The big meeting nearly failed owing to the treacherous murder of the Chief Maskepetoon by the Blackfeet in the spring of the year. Maskepetoon visited the Blackfeet camp hoping to arrange a peace. As he was approaching the camp, bearing a white flag and open Bible, a Blackfoot savage shot him.

Among the chiefs at the hunt were Sayakamat, Chief of the Wood

Crees after Maskepetoon's death, Pakan, Samson and Ermine Skin—men who proved their loyalty in 1870 and 1885. Rev. Father Scollen, the Catholic missionary, was in attendance during the hunt, as were also Rev. Peter Campbell and Ira Snyder, the teacher from Victoria. No doubt this successful "summer school" for the Alberta Indians did much to hold them in subjection during the dangerous events at Red River in the fall of that year.

The transition from the rule of the Hudson's Bay Company to that of the Government of Canada was an uneasy period for the missionaries of the plains. Buffalo were becoming scarcer every year in the valley of the North Saskatchewan and the Indians were inclined to blame the white men. Besides there were over seven hundred mixed bloods in the country West of Fort Carlton, sullen and restless over the disturbances at Red River (1869-'70). Added to these difficulties was the terrible scourge of smallpox during the winter and summer of 1870 which carried off over one-third of the population. The Government of the North West Territories and the Hudson's Bay Company sent John McDougall on a mission of peace in 1871, for the tribes were gathering at the Hand Hills and evil counsel was being spread. Here he met Sweet Grass, Sayakamat, Little Pine and their headmen, and better counsel prevailed. For this service Mr. McDougall was given the status of an officer in the Hudson's Bay Company.

In 1871 Superintendent McDougall (Rev. George) decided to establish the headquarters of the Saskatchewan District at Edmonton. Leaving his son John in charge at Victoria and the White Earth Settlement (near the site of Old White Earth House of 1810), he built a mission house and church outside of the Hudson's Bay Fort, on the site of the McDougall Church of the present day. This was the beginning of modern Edmonton, and Rev. George McDougall was its founder. Next year the District meeting of Saskatchewan transferred Rev. Peter Campbell from Pigeon Lake to Victoria and John McDougall to Pigeon Lake.

During the summer of 1872 the first Methodist Conference held west of the Great Lakes was convened in Winnipeg. All the missionaries from the Saskatchewan Valley attended—Rev. George McDougall, Rev. Henry B. Steinhauer, Rev. Peter Campbell, and Bro. John McDougall. The conference decided to open a new mission for the Mountain Stoneys at Morleyville, named after Dr. Morley Punshon, who attended the conference, and to put Rev. John McDougall, ordained at the conference, in charge. The site of the mission was selected the following spring (1873) by Rev. George McDougall, and building commenced in the autumn of the same year. Materials for the buildings were brought from Fort Benton. This has been one of the most successful Indian missions established in Western Canada and is still in operation.

Rev. Lachlan Taylor, General Secretary of the Methodist Missionary Society, visited Alberta in the summer of 1873, with John McDougall as

guide, calling at Whitefish Lake, Victoria, Edmonton, where he dedicated the first McDougall Church building, and Pigeon Lake. Continuing his journey southward through the Blackfeet Country, he spent a night at Fort Whoopup, and crossed over to Fort Benton on his way home to Eastern Canada. Next year (1874) Rev. George McDougall visited all the missions in Alberta as far north as Athabaska. Rev. John McDougall was sent by the Canadian Government to explain the coming of the North West Mounted Police to the Blackfeet tribes of Southern Alberta. He visited Fort Kipp, Fort Whoopup and Blackfoot Crossing, where he met some of the famous whiskey traders of the time. Here he met Crowfoot and Old Sun. The announcement was welcomed by the Blackfeet chiefs as one of deliverance and protection from the plundering, murderous whiskey traders, but at the same time it was a poignant realization that the glory of their nation had departed forever. Henceforth they would be wards, not masters in the land of their birth.

We come now to the end of the Indian regime on the plains. Up to this period we have been dealing with Indian missions. After the formal entry and taking possession of the country by the North West Mounted Police the way was prepared for settlement. From this date onward Indian missions have been confined to the Reservations. We hear no more of big missionary gatherings of the various tribes during the buffalo hunts. The time had come for permanent missions and settled pastorates.

After a trip among the Crees and Stoneys to prepare them for taking treaty, Rev. George McDougall and his son John visited the Blackfeet late in 1875 to establish a mission among them. A location was chosen at Pincher Creek, but the untimely death of the intrepid missionary delayed the project for two years. It was not until the summer of 1878 that a mission was established among the Blackfeet by the Methodist Church.

The death of George McDougall at the age of 56, after sixteen years of heroic service on behalf of the natives of the plains was a great loss to the Church and to the State. The tragic circumstances of his death made the loss still more lamentable. Word reached Morleyville January (1874) that the buffalo were moving westward. Mr. McDougall, his son John, and three others set out to secure a supply of meat. On the 24th of that month they were camped about ten miles from where Calgary is now. After three days' run they were returning to camp, eight miles away, Mr. McDougall, when within two miles of the lodge, went ahead to prepare supper while the rest brought home the meat. Thirteen days later he was found frozen not far from the camp. He was buried at Morleyville. His name and his work will ever be an unfailling treasure of inspiration to the Methodist Church in Western Canada.

His work was taken up by his son John, then, and for many years afterwards, stationed at Morleyville. A church was built at Calgary in 1877, although John McDougall had held services there from the time

the police established Fort Brisbois, the first name given the police post at this point. Next year he sent Miss E. A. Barrett and one of his daughters to open the first Protestant mission in Southern Alberta at Macleod. Six months later Rev. Henry M. Manning succeeded Miss Barrett, and in the summer of 1880 John Maclean, a student, took up the work which he carried on with pronounced success for over ten years. Meanwhile Mr. Maclean completed his theological studies and acquired a wide knowledge of Indian history, languages, manners and customs, which he has given to the world in a number of books. He is now the chief archivist of the Methodist Church in Canada. In 1881 the mission was moved to Blood Reserve, where it was carried on until 1892, when it was turned over to the Anglican Church.

In 1880 Dr. Alexander Sutherland, General Secretary of the Methodist Missionary Society, made a tour of inspection of Western missions. He came over the Southern plains from Fort Benton to Edmonton, thence by boat down the Saskatchewan to Prince Albert, thence overland to Winnipeg. A new church was built in Calgary in December, 1883, a few months after the Canadian Pacific Railway reached the town, by Rev. James Turner, the first settled pastor. The same year the first Methodist Church in Medicine Hat was built, Rev. Wellington Bridgeman being the first pastor.

When the coal mines were opened at Lethbridge, Rev. John Maclean from the Blood Reserve, held services for the miners on the river bottom before there was a town of that name. These services were held once a month until 1887, when Rev. Wellington Bridgeman of the church at Macleod, took up the work. In 1889 Rev. James Endicott, now General Secretary of the Methodist Missionary Society, was sent there as a young man under the superintendency of Rev. A. B. Hames, of Macleod.

A new Indian mission was opened in 1883 at Lesser Slave Lake, under Rev. E. R. Steinhauer, son of the veteran native missionary of Whitefish Lake. The name of this mission soon disappeared from the yearly reports, and Mr. Steinhauer was transferred to Morleyville. In the early eighties missions were established among the Indians on the reserves on the Battle River. Rev. John Nelson ministered to the Stoneys at Woodville and also visited the reserves at White Whale (Wabamun) Lake and Riviere Qui Barre. Rev. E. B. Glass was in charge at Battle River from 1882. After the rebellion in 1885, Rev. Geo. E. Somerset established a new station at Bear's Hill. After the death of Henry B. Steinhauer at Whitefish Lake (December 29, 1884), Rev. Orrin German, a famous Cree scholar, who had served many years at Norway House, Oxford House and other stations in Northern Manitoba, was sent to Whitefish Lake (August, 1885). He conducted this mission until he was transferred to Battle River and Bear's Hill in 1892, where he labored until his death in July, 1905. Rev. Geo. E. Somerset took charge of the missions at White Whale Lake and Riviere Qui Barre (1892), and Rev. E. B. Glass was trans-

ferred at the same time to Whitefish Lake. Next year (1893) an Industrial School for the training of the Indian youth was established at Red Deer, and placed in charge of Rev. John Nelson and R. B. Steinhauer, B.A., another son of the famous missionary of Whitefish. Next in charge was Rev. Geo. E. Somerset from 1894 to 1903. Then followed: Rev. John P. Rice, 1903-1907; Rev. Arthur Barner, 1907-1913; Rev. J. F. Woodsworth, 1913 to the present time. In 1920 this school was moved to a site a few miles North of Edmonton. It draws its pupils from Louis Bull's Reserve, Samson's Reserve, Paul's Band at Wabamun.

The importance with which the Conference of Manitoba and the North-West regarded its work among the Indians was indicated by the appointment in 1903 of Rev. John McDougall, founder of the McDougall Orphanage and Mission at Morleyville, to the position of Superintendent of Indian Missions for the Methodist Church, and organizing the work among the Indians into a separate department or an Indian District. On Mr. McDougall's retirement a few years later he was succeeded by Rev. Thomas Ferrier, the present Superintendent of this work.

A Galician mission was established in 1901 at Pakan, the new name given to Victoria. The importance of Victoria as an Indian mission had ceased. The country South and North of the Saskatchewan River was filling up with new settlers from Galicia. C. H. Lawford, M.D., who was filling in charge of the new mission, still labors in this field.

The McDougall Orphanage at Morleyville was closed in 1906, and remained closed until 1921, when the institution was reorganized and opened as a boarding school, Rev. E. J. Staley in charge.

The year 1906 brings us to present day conditions. Churches began to spring up in every town. Towns grew as railways were extended. The Methodist Church, following the lines laid down by the Conferences, and directed by the genius of the Superintendent of Missions, Rev. Dr. James Woodsworth, pursued a vigorous and comprehensive policy of establishing its ministry in every town and settlement, and of strengthening its organization to meet the increasing demands. The territory, comprising what is now Alberta, was divided into three districts—Calgary, Red Deer and Edmonton—with twenty-five stations in each district. Twenty years before, June, 1883, the first Conference in the West had been organized in Grace Church, Winnipeg. Rev. Dr. Geo. Young, the first Methodist minister in Winnipeg (1868), and then Superintendent of Missions in the West, was elected President. At that time there were only five self-sustaining fields, forty-six missions to White settlers, and seventeen to the Indian tribes in the whole of the North-West.

Conditions were ready for further advancement in the organization of the church in the West. So in 1904 the Conference of Manitoba and the North-West, meeting again in Grace Church, Winnipeg, divided the jurisdiction into three Conferences, namely: Manitoba, Rev. Wm. Saunders, President; Saskatchewan, Rev. Hamilton Wigle, President; Alberta,

Rev. J. M. Harrison, of Medicine Hat, President, and Rev. T. C. Buchanan, Superintendent of Missions for Alberta.

In anticipation of the division of the territory, the Conference of 1903 authorized the organization of Alberta College at Edmonton as a preparatory and collegiate institution under the Methodist Church. Accordingly, Alberta College was opened December 3, 1903, with Rev. Dr. J. H. Riddell as principal. Dr. Riddell held the position until he took over the principalship of Alberta Theological College (now Alberta College South), when that institution was opened on the campus of the University of Alberta. Rev. F. Stacey McCall succeeded Dr. Riddell as principal of Alberta College North. In 1918 Dr. Riddell accepted the principalship of Wesley College, Winnipeg. Rev. Dr. A. S. Tuttle then became principal of Alberta Theological College.

ROMAN CATHOLIC MISSIONS.

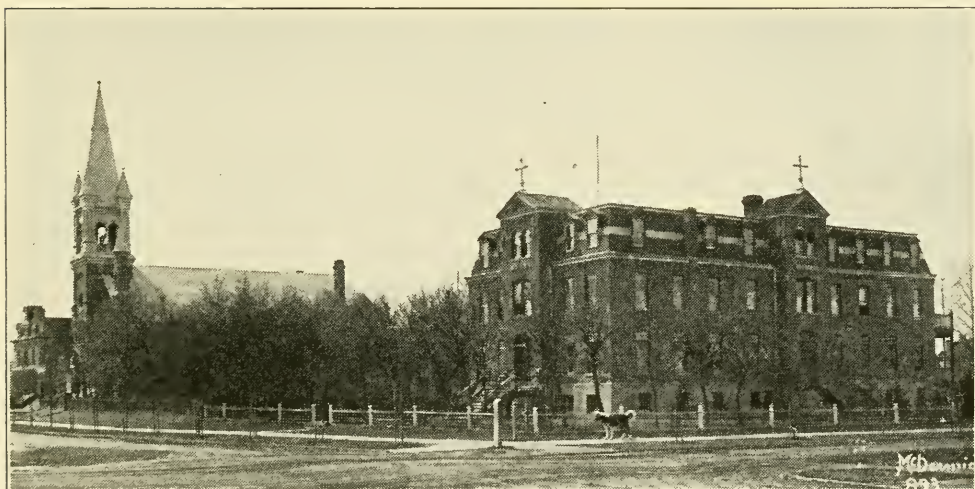
In dealing with Roman Catholic Missions, a general review of the subject will be given applicable to the whole of the North West Territories, followed by a history of the several parishes and churches founded in Alberta.

The Roman Catholic Church began its permanent establishment in Western Canada among the Selkirk settlers, the French Canadians and Half-Breeds. As already noted, that was in 1818. Over half a century was to pass before the Hudson's Bay Company surrendered the country to the Dominion of Canada. During that time there was little settlement of the country. It belonged to the Indians and the Hudson's Bay Company. The principal work, therefore, during that period was among the Indians. As the work spread among the numerous tribes the demands became so great that Bishop Provencher eventually realized that the great task of Indian missions could not be successfully carried on by secular priests alone. It became increasingly difficult to get young men from Lower Canada to man the Western fields. He met with that same disappointment that Dr. Robertson met with when the great Presbyterian superintendent complained forty years later that the young men of the East heard the call only where the beds were soft and the meals palatable and good.

After twenty-five years of heroic endeavor Provencher had only four priests to carry on the work of the Church in the vast diocese comprising Rupert's Land and the Indian Territories. The good bishop turned to the great religious orders of the Roman Catholic Church. He first approached the Jesuits, but finally entreated the Oblates of Mary Immaculate to undertake a foundation of their order in Western Canada. The Oblates were an order of missionaries founded by Rt. Rev. Charles J. E. de Mazenod, Bishop of Marseilles, in 1816. They were the first missionaries to enter Canada after the conquest and had achieved wonderful



ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH,
CALGARY



CATHOLIC CHURCH AND SEPARATE SCHOOL, EDMONTON

success among the country parishes of Lower Canada. The coming of the Oblates solved the problem of securing men for the Indian missions. For the next fifty years scores of young priests, many of them scions of fine, old, aristocratic families of old and new France, bade everlasting farewell to home and friends, and became martyrs of the cold amid Arctic snows, endured hunger and all the hardships and dangers of nomadic life among Crees and Blackfeet, with no reward except to raise the moral and material condition of the savages of the land we live in so peaceably and prosperously today. The story of Alberta missions is linked with the Western Crusade of the Oblates. Although the first Roman Catholic missionaries to Alberta were secular priests, the great names associated with Alberta and the West — Taché, Grandin, Faraud, Clut, Lacombe, Grollier, Petitot, Grouard and Legal—were all Oblates. In 1881 there was only one secular priest in the whole of Alberta—Father Bellevaire, at Battle River.

The first Oblates to arrive in Western Canada were Father Aubert, from France, and Brother Alexander Taché, a young novice of the order from Lower Canada. They reached Red River in August, 1843. Brother Taché was a descendant of Verendrye, the first white man to see the Red River. A few weeks after his arrival, Taché was ordained and began a wonderful career of fifty years' service, first as itinerant missionary, next coadjutor to Bishop Provencher, then Bishop, and finally Archbishop of the metropolitan See of St. Boniface, the largest ecclesiastical province of the Roman Catholic Church in the world.

Archbishop Taché is the greatest name in the history of the Roman Catholic Church in the West. During the fifty years of his ecclesiastical reign he was called upon to deal with all the big problems that have faced the Church in Western Canada—Indian missions, demands of the settlers and half-breeds respecting the monopoly of the Hudson's Bay Company, the troublesome incidents arising out of the Riel Rebellions in 1870 and 1885, amnesty for the insurgents, the use of the French language, separate schools according to Roman Catholic standards and practice, the neglect of the Indians by the officials of the Indian Department after being put on their reservations, and the indifference of the Government of Canada with respect to the general administration of Indian affairs. Some of these issues were decided against the Roman Catholic Church, but the reason was not due to any want of ability, tenacity and consummate statesmanship on the part of the Archbishop of St. Boniface.

On the death of Bishop Provencher in 1853, Taché, at the age of thirty years, succeeded him to the See of St. Boniface, having been appointed his coadjutor in 1850, with right of succession. At that time the See of St. Boniface counted few new parishes and missions—St. Boniface, St. Francis Xavier, on White Horse Plains. Of missions there were Lac St. Anne; Nativity, on Lake Athabaska, at Fort Chipewyan; St. Joseph's at

Ile a la Crosse and Our Lady of Seven Dolours at Fond du Lac. Three of these missions were in what is now Alberta.

As new men arrived and new missions were established, Taché, though the youngest bishop in the world, asked the hierarchy in Canada to petition the Pope to grant him a coadjutor, leaving the choice to the Superior General of the Oblates, Bishop de Mazenod of Marseilles. The Superior General nominated Rev. Vital J. Grandin, who had arrived at Red River in 1854, from France, and who was to give forty-eight years of fruitful labors in the West, almost equal to the achievements of Taché himself. Father Grandin was appointed Bishop in December, 1857.

The Cathedral of St. Boniface, the cathedral with the "turrets twain," of Whittier's poem, built by Provencher in 1844, was burned to the ground on December 14, 1860. Taché visited Canada and Europe to raise funds to build a new cathedral, and to have his plans for a division of the immense diocese of St. Boniface approved by proper authority. His plans were approved, the diocese was divided into two, the dividing line being the famous Methy Portage. Rev. Father Faraud was appointed Bishop of the new diocese—the vicariate apostolic of Athabaska-Mackenzie—in May, 1862, with headquarters at Fort Providence, on Great Slave Lake, established by Bishop Grandin in 1861.

In 1864 Father Vandenberghe was sent from France to inspect the Oblate missions in Rupert's Land. In company with Bishop Taché, he visited Ile a la Crosse, Cold Lake, Lac la Biche, St. Albert, Edmonton, and Fort Carlton.

Just now the Roman Catholic missionaries were meeting strong opposition from the Anglican missionaries in Athabaska-Mackenzie district at Fort Simpson. Bishop Faraud consequently appealed for a coadjutor. Father Clut, in charge of Nativity at Fort Chipewyan, was, by special permission, chosen at a conference of Oblates of the diocese held at Providence, January, 1866, making the fourth Roman Catholic bishop in the country.

A second division of the See of St. Boniface was decreed by the eleventh chapter-general of the Oblates, held in France August, 1867. In consequence, Bishop Grandin was named vicar of Saskatchewan missions, with jurisdiction separate from Bishop Taché. He is better known as the Bishop of St. Albert. The new diocese included the basins of the Saskatchewan and Churchill rivers, and the valley of the Athabaska River as far as Lesser Slave Lake. In this vast territory there were six mission centres, namely: Lac St. Anne, St. Albert, Lac la Biche, Ile a la Crosse, St. Paul of the Crees (the present Brosseau on the Saskatchewan River), and St. Peter on Lake Caribou. To carry on the work of these stations among the Indians were eleven priests, ten lay brothers and nine nuns. St. Albert now became the episcopal residence of Bishop Grandin, due to the destruction of the entire establishment by fire at Ile a la Crosse in May, 1867.

The fourth Provincial Council of Quebec met in May, 1868, and decided to elevate the See of St. Boniface to the dignity of a metropolitanate. Naturally Bishop Taché was nominated by the Council as Archbishop of the new ecclesiastical province. This act was ratified by the Supreme Pastor of the Roman Catholic Church in 1871, and Archbishop Taché was invested with the pallium in June of the following year.

After the transfer of Rupert's Land to the Dominion of Canada, the proportion of the Catholic population of Western Canada steadily declined. When the Province of Manitoba was incorporated there were 5,452 Catholics, 4,841 Protestants and 1,935 of unknown religious faiths in the Province. The proportion was still greater in the North West Territories in favor of the Roman Catholics. But the tide of immigration soon indicated that Manitoba and the North West Territories would be overwhelmingly Protestant and English speaking. To cope with the problem that inevitably faced his church, Archbishop Taché initiated a current of Roman Catholic immigration to the West. Many of the first settlements in Alberta were established as a result of this policy. The migration of the Half-Breeds of the Red River after the rebellion of 1870 to the North and West rapidly decreased the preponderance of Catholics in Manitoba. Special immigration agents working in Eastern Canada, and among expatriated French Canadians in the United States were successful in directing thousands of their co-religionists to Western Canada, and especially Alberta.

The control of Catholic higher education, as well as the control of missionary enterprises had been under the Oblates since Archbishop Taché arrived at Red River in 1845. It had long been his wish to hand over the permanent control of the College of St. Boniface to his own congregation. But the Oblates are a missionary order and not a teaching order like the Jesuits and it was decided to place the college under the Jesuits. The transfer was made August 13, 1885. Among the priestly professors of the new order was Rev. Father Lewis Drummond, afterwards known in Alberta as a professor in the Jesuit College at Edmonton, and a scholar of great piety and learning. In 1887 the Cathedral begun by Taché in 1862 to replace the cathedral built by Provencher in 1833 and destroyed in 1862, was completed and consecrated.

The first Provincial Council of the Province of St. Boniface was held in 1889 on the 71st anniversary of the arrival at Red River of Provencher and Dumoulin. This Council asked for the division of the diocese of St. Albert and issued eight decrees on the following subjects: The sacraments, education of youth, Indian missions, sanctification of the Lord's Day, episcopal jurisdiction, ecclesiastical properties, secret societies and Christian mortification. Indeed such a council of the Western hierarchy was a necessary preliminary to declare the unchanging position of the Roman Catholic Church and strengthen its influence in the conflict that was about to break against it.

Clouds were looming over the horizon. In 1890 the Manitoba legislature abolished separate schools and the use of the French language and two years later similar legislative action was taken by the Assembly of the North West Territories. Archbishop Taché and his bishops protested vigorously against the action of the legislature of Manitoba, first on the ground that it was unconstitutional, and second that it was a violation of assurances given by Premier Greenway and Attorney-General Martin in 1888. The equal rights agitation in Eastern Canada fanned the flames in Manitoba and battles, legal, polemical and political, clouded the closing years of Taché's life. The result was a defeat, but not a surrender for the Venerable Archbishop of St. Boniface. The Privy Council decided the Manitoba law was *intra vires*. The pledge given by the Greenway Government could bind only while it held office. Consequently the Government felt safe, though it could not have felt conscience-clear, in breaking the pledge. The issue was bound to arise and to be settled by the Protestant majority, as it was settled by the legislature of 1890.

Bishop Faraud, owing to growing infirmities resigned his charge of the vicariate-apostolic of Athabaska-Mackenzie early in 1890, and died in September the same year. He was succeeded by Father Grouard who had come from France in 1860 and had served at several missions in the North. Grouard used a printing press in his work, printing books in the native dialects for the Indians of the Athabaska and Mackenzie. Bishop Grouard was consecrated at St. Boniface June 4, 1891. In the same year the diocese of St. Albert was divided and a new bishop appointed, Bishop Pascal, consecrated in France April 29th. His diocese included part of Alberta and extended to Hudson Bay.

In 1894 the Superior General of the Oblates, Rt. Rev. Louis Soullier, visited Canada on a tour of Western missions. In the same year Archbishop Taché died (June 22, 1894). When he arrived in Red River 49 years before, there were only four Roman Catholic priests between Lake Superior and the Rocky Mountains. At the time of his death within the same territory, there were five bishops, over one hundred and forty-seven priests, and over 150 sisters. He was succeeded by Archbishop Langevin, who was consecrated March 19, 1895.

It has been said of Langevin that he not only succeeded Taché but he filled his place. The truth of this estimate of his ability was tested and proven in his negotiations with the Government of Canada in 1896 in the settlement of the contentious school question arising out of the famous Remedial Bill of that year, and again, in the battle that was waged over the school clauses in the Alberta and Saskatchewan Acts of 1905.

With the establishment of a Metropolitan See in Alberta in 1912, under Archbishop Legal, St. Boniface lost its importance in the church policies of Alberta, and we arrive at a convenient date to close the general summary of the history of the Roman Catholic Church in Alberta.

CATHOLIC PARISHES IN ALBERTA—ST. ANNE.

The oldest Catholic parish in Alberta is Lac St. Anne, founded by Rev. Jean Baptiste Thibault in 1842. The first priests of any denomination to perform religious services in Alberta were Fathers Blanchet and Demers on their way to British Columbia in 1838. They passed through Edmonton and erected a cross on the site of the Parliament Buildings.

In 1841 Peeche, the guide of Sir George Simpson on his trip of 1841, arrived at Red Deer to beg for a missionary for Edmonton. In the following spring Bishop Provencher sent Father Thibault. He left St. Boniface April 20, 1842, reaching Fort Edmonton via Fort Carlton on June 19th. Spending the summer at Fort Edmonton, he returned to Red River in October. Next year he returned and founded a mission at Lac St. Anne, or Devil's Lake as it was called by the Hudson's Bay Company's men. He chose this point rather than Fort Edmonton to be out of the fighting zone of the Blackfeet and Crees. In 1844 he was joined by Father Bourassa. Next year Father Thibault visited the Chipewyans at Lac la Biche, Ile a la Crosse and Cold Lake, while Father Bourassa visited the Beavers at Lesser Slave Lake and the Grande Prairie and Peace River country. In the early days of 1846 the good Fathers were surprised by an illustrious visitor. This was the Jesuit missionary, Father de Smet, who, coming along the Foothills passed through Edmonton, Lac St. Anne, and Jasper House, looking for the Blackfeet to press them to make a treaty with the Flatheads on the American border. Father Thibault, worn out by hardships, returned to St. Boniface in 1852, and was followed the next year by Father Bourassa. Father Lacombe, yet a secular priest, took charge of the mission in 1853 and was soon joined by Father Remas, an Oblate, arrived the previous year from France. Here the two priests labored for five years, making journeys to the Indians at Lac la Biche, Lesser Slave Lake, Jasper House, and following the Plains Indians on their buffalo hunts. They were visited by Bishop Taché on March 27, 1854, then on a tour of inspection of the various missions in the Saskatchewan and Athabaska regions. During this period Father Lacombe joined the Oblates, completing his novitiate in September, 1856.

The Grey Nuns established at Lac St. Anne in 1859, the first being Sister Superior Emery, and Sisters Lamy and Alphonse. Other priests in charge of Lac St. Anne have been: Father Leduc, 1867 to 1868; Fathers Andre and Bourguine, 1870 to 1871; Fathers Blanchet and Dupin, 1871 to 1874; Fathers Scollen and Grandin, 1883 to 1884; Father Lizée, 1886 to 1896; Father Vegreville, 1897, when Father Lizée was again placed in charge until 1908. Next the mission was under Father Portier and then Father Beaudry until 1917.

In 1889 Father Lestanc, Superior of St. Albert, began the customary pilgrimages to St. Anne, which take place each year on the Wednesday nearest the Feast Day of St. Anne.

St. Albert.—The next important mission in Alberta was established at St. Albert in 1861. Bishop Taché selected the spot and placed Father Lacombe in charge. Next year Father Lacombe started work on the buildings, including one for the Orphanage, that has been carried on ever since by the Gréy Nuns, who moved from Lac St. Anne in 1863. The new mission attracted a great number of half-breeds, who settled on farms and founded one of the largest settlements in the West at the time. From 1865 Fathers Tissot and Andre continued the work while Father Lacombe founded a new mission, St. Paul of the Crees, on the North Saskatchewan River where the village of Brosseau is now situated. Father Leduc succeeded to the charge in 1868, and in the same year Bishop Grandin established his palace at St. Albert, a log building 16 feet by 30 feet. The ceiling in the chapel was so low that the Bishop could not officiate without catching his mitre in the joists. He entered St. Albert October 26th, escorted by a cavalcade of half-breeds, having arrived from St. Paul of the Crees, where he was met by the eight priests of his diocese—Fathers Lacombe, Leduc, Remas, Vegreville, Moulin, Gasté, Andre and Legoff.

In 1870 a cathedral was built 84 feet by 72 feet, which purpose it served until 1906, and is still used as a Concert Hall and Assembly Room for the town of St. Albert. That same year St. Albert was raised to the dignity of an episcopal See, Bishop Grandin being the first Titular Bishop. Previously he had been only Vicar of Saskatchewan and coadjutor to Bishop Taché. The new dignity gave him increased jurisdiction.

Father Lestanc followed Father Leduc in 1874 and remained for three years, when Father Leduc returned. In 1878 a number of white settlers arrived and gave an impetus to the material progress of the community. Next year the mission erected a grist mill and a sawmill. Father Leduc remained ten years, when Father Merer succeeded, continuing until 1914. Father Legal who had spent sixteen years among the Blackfeet of Southern Alberta, was appointed coadjutor to Bishop Grandin in March, 1897, and in 1900 the Apostolic Delegate for the Dominion of Canada came purposely to St. Albert to visit the aged Bishop. In the same year a Diocesan Seminary was inaugurated. In 1902 the saintly bishop died and was succeeded by Bishop Legal. Apostolic Delegates have visited St. Albert on two occasions since—Msgr. Sbaretti in 1902 and Msgr. Pelegrino Stagni in 1910.

The progress of Roman Catholic missions in all parts of the Province required the erection of another diocese, the Diocese of Calgary, in 1912. At the same time the diocese of St. Albert was raised to the dignity of a Metropolitan See, under Archbishop Legal. The growth of Edmonton to a modern city induced the Pope to order the establishment of the cathedral and archiepiscopal residence at Edmonton instead of the town of St. Albert, and the archdiocese named the Archdiocese of Edmonton. The venerable archbishop died in March, 1920, and in December, 1920, His Grace Archbishop O'Leary was appointed in his place.

With the appointment of the present Archbishop the number of secular priests in the Province will increase. For eighty years the Oblates governed and manned the diocese of what is now Alberta. In their long and honorable history here and elsewhere in Western Canada they have amply justified the hopes of Provencher and Taché, and their great sacrifices and achievements will never be forgotten by the people of the West.

St. Joachim's, Edmonton:—As we have seen, Fathers Blanchet and Demers passed through Edmonton in 1838 and Father Thibault was there in 1842. For the next fifteen years the priests from St. Anne often visited Edmonton. The Journals of the Fort frequently relate arrival and departure of Fathers Lacombe, Remas and Bourassa, but as yet there was not a permanent priest. For example, there is an entry in the Journal of March 10, 1856, as follows: "Messrs. Moberly and John Sinclair, accompanied by Abraham Satois, went on a jaunt to Lac St. Anne to bring back some carts left there last fall as well as to confess their sins." Rev. Robt. Rundle was often a visitor to the fort in those days. In 1857 a mission was begun at Edmonton. Chief Factor William Christie gave permission for the establishment of a chapel within the walls of the fort, and a house for the use of the missionary. One of the priests either of St. Albert or Lac St. Anne were in charge until 1865, when a school was built and Father Scollen took charge. Eleven years later (1876) the chapel was removed outside of the fort. Mr. Malcolm Groat, ex-employee of the Hudson's Bay Company, donated nine acres in what has been since known to the people of Edmonton as the "Groat Estate." Here another chapel was built from the materials of the old chapel. Rev. Father Blanchet was put in charge, but resided at St. Albert. In 1883 a new chapel was built on the present site of St. Joachim's Church, and Father Grandin, a nephew of the bishop, became the parish priest. He remained until 1890, and was followed by Father Fauquet, who was succeeded by Father Lacombe. The good father longed to go back to his hermitage at Pincher Creek, and gladly gave up his charge at St. Joachim's to his old friend, Father Leduc. During Leduc's pastorate the present St. Joachim's Church was erected. Father Jan, who had assisted Father Leduc for a number of years, succeeded to the charge in 1904. Then followed Fathers Hetu and Therien, 1906; Father Naessens, 1907; Fathers Lemarchand, Merer and Tavernier.

The congregation of the Faithful Companions of Jesus founded a boarding school beside the mission in 1888 and in 1895 the Grey Nuns established a hospital, the nucleus of the splendid hospital on Victoria Avenue today. They were followed in 1901 by the Sisters of Mercy of the Misericordia Hospital.

The original parish of St. Joachim's has been divided several times as Edmonton increased in area and population. The first parish was the Immaculate Conception organized in 1905 by Father Hetu; then Sacred Heart to accommodate the English speaking parishioners of the

Immaculate Conception, in 1911. A new church was built for the purpose in 1913. It is interesting to observe that Father Roque, incumbent of the Immaculate Conception, was the first secular priest in Edmonton. The parish of St. Anthony (Strathcona) was founded in 1895, and served from St. Joachim's until 1901, when it became independent. Priests in charge have been Father Nordmann, 1901-1905; Father McQuaid, 1906; Father Jan again, 1907; Father McQuaid 1908-1911; Father Lemarchand, 1912-1914; Father Torquinet.

St. Francis of Assisi:—In 1909 the Franciscan Fathers established a mission at North Edmonton, the industrial portion of the city. The previous year they had come to Our Lady of Lourdes at Lamoureux, opposite Fort Saskatchewan, but decided to locate at North Edmonton. Here their monastery has been built. Father Berchmans was the first superior. Father Xavier-Marie followed Father Berchmans in 1911. By 1914 the parish had grown so that it became necessary to divide it, one for the French speaking Catholics, the other for the English speaking and other nationalities.

Other parishes in the City of Edmonton manned by priests of the Sacred Heart of Jesus, assisted by the Ursuline Nuns, are: St. Edmund (Calder), St. Francis Xavierius, under the Society of Jesus, with a college founded in 1912, Father Hudon, Society of Jesus, principal; and Holy Rosary (Polish).

Mission at Lac La Biche:—This point had been visited by Father Thibault in 1844, Father Bourassa in 1851, by Bishop Taché in 1852 and Father Lacombe, but it was not founded as a permanent mission until 1853. Here Father Remas took up his residence that year. He was visited by Father Vegreville next year, and was sent to Lac St. Anne in 1855. Fathers Tissot and Maisonneuve, who then took charge, put the mission on a permanent footing. They opened a road from Fort Pitt to Lac La Biche in 1856, and brought in supplies by ox-carts, raised barley and potatoes, making the place self-sustaining and a source of supply for other missions of the North. Next year several buildings were erected under the supervision of Brother Bowes, one of the most famous of the Oblate Brothers, and who built many missions in the North-West during his lifetime. They burned limestone and built stone buildings.

In 1862 a colony of nuns was established at Lac La Biche, with Sister Gunette as superior. The Fathers built a small mill and the Sisters made bread for the mission.

In 1875 Bishop Faraud established his episcopal palace at Lac La Biche. Father Vegreville was priest in charge of the mission. Two years later the mission was transferred to the jurisdiction of the Vicar Apostolic of Athabaska and Mackenzie because of its advantages as a base of supplies. When Bishop Faraud took up his residence at Fort Providence in 1889, the mission, which had long rivalled St. Albert, lost much of its importance and became an outpost of half-breed settlement. In 1898 the

Sisters moved to Saddle Lake, though in 1904 Father Grandin, then in charge, succeeded in establishing another community of Sisters at the mission.

Calgary (Our Lady of Peace):—Alexis Cardinal, Father Lacombe's famous and intrepid guide, built a house on the Elbow River, some twenty-five miles above the junction of the Bow and Elbow rivers in 1872. Next year he gave the house to Fathers Scollen and Fourmond, and in 1874 a larger house was built. This was the beginning of the parish. When the North West Mounted Police established a police post at the junction of the Bow and Elbow, the two priests moved to the vicinity of the police barracks and built a chapel there in 1877. Father Doucet was the first priest in charge. In the spring of 1881 Bishop Grandin visited the mission while on an episcopal tour to the Blackfoot tribes of Southern Alberta. In 1883 Fathers Lacombe and Doucet filed on two quarter-sections within the City of Calgary, which were eventually acquired by the Church. In 1885 twelve Companions of Jesus arrived (July 26th), Fathers Leduc and Andre in charge, visiting Gleichen, Pincher Creek and other posts around. Beginning was made on a stone church, Our Lady of Peace, under Father Leduc, and it was opened in 1889. The Grey Nuns of Montreal established Holy Cross Hospital in 1891. As the city grew other churches and parishes sprang up—Sacred Heart in West Calgary, St. Anne's in East Calgary, and the Ruthenian Parish of St. Stephen's in 1911, St. Joseph's, 1915, as well as several separate schools, and St. Mary's high school for boys. The Ursuline Nuns, chiefly devoted to nursing and education of girls, erected a foundation of the order in Calgary in 1921.

INDIAN MISSIONS OF THE CATHOLIC CHURCH.

After the Indian tribes had taken treaty and were placed on their several reservations, it became comparatively easy to establish missions thereon—much easier than when the missionaries were compelled to follow the tribes in their nomadic life on the plains. The Roman Catholic Church showed remarkable energy in establishing missions at nearly all the reservations, though it should be borne in mind that both the Methodist and Anglican Churches have also carried on a splendid work on the reservations.

It is a significant fact that though the Indians of the North-West have been described as savages by almost every writer of the last century who traveled in this territory, the missionaries of every denomination have been invariably treated with kindness and respect by the natives. In the long history of Western missions only four missionaries have suffered death from the hands of the Indians—Father Aulneau at St. Charles, 1736; Father Darveau at Lake Winnipegosis, 1844, and Fathers Faford and Marchand in 1885 at Frog Lake. To this list may be added the name of Brother Alexis Raynard, O.M.I., the factotum of Northern

missions, who was murdered at House River in the summer of 1875 by an Iroquois companion. The outrage at Frog Lake was the work of non-treaty nomads, incited by Riel's emissaries.

In 1882 Father Faford established a fine mission at Frog Lake, where a large number of Indians were settled. At Onion Lake, another reserve a few miles away, plans were in progress for a mission in the spring of 1885 by Fathers Merer and Marchand. But the rebellion intervened and Faford, Marchand and seven other whites were murdered by Big Bear's band, and the buildings destroyed by fire (April 2, 1885). In 1886 Father Merer was sent to rebuild Onion Lake mission. After the completion of a fine church in 1871 a solemn service was held by Bishop Grandin on September 15th, in connection with the burial of the martyred priests—Faford and Marchand. Their remains were borne from their temporary resting place at Frog Lake to the vault of the chapel at Onion Lake. A school was opened on the reserve and put in charge of the Reverend Sisters of the Assumption. The first nuns arrived with Bishop Grandin, 8th of September, 1891. Since that period, until the present, there has been naturally many changes. The mission has been one of the most successful in the Province. An excellent boarding school is maintained and attended by 75 children.

After the unhappy crisis of 1885 the Indian Department gathered the Indians at Victoria (near Pakan), and south of the Saskatchewan, principally around Whitford Lake (then Egg Lake) and placed them on the reserve at Saddle Lake—near Whitefish Lake and Good Fish Lake reserves. These Indians were under Chief Pakan, an ardent Protestant, but to minister to the Catholic members of the tribe Father Merer established a mission here in 1888, that has flourished ever since. It is said that the last pagan Indian was baptized by Father Leduc on this reserve in 1897. He was the Indian who unintentionally shot Chief Sweet Grass in 1876. In 1898 the boarding school at Lac La Biche was, on the advice of the Indian Department, transferred to Saddle Lake, where it is still carried on. Father Balter who took charge in 1906 published for many years a small monthly journal, "The Sacred Heart" in Cree, using the syllabic characters.

HALF-BREED MISSIONS OF THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH.

Duhamel:—Some of the Catholic missions have been established especially for the benefit of the half-breeds, as most of these people in the West belong to this church. Such were Duhamel and St. Paul de Metis. In the late seventies, a number of half-breed families settled on the banks of Battle River, about thirty miles east of the present City of Wetaskiwin. This was known as the Selvais or the Laboucan settlement. A special survey was made in 1883, and the plan of river lots, so popular with the half-breed settler, was adopted. As a mission Duhamel dates from 1881, when

it was first visited by Father Beillevaire. The founding of the mission and the introduction of the river lot surveys attracted a considerable number of half-breeds. In the summer of 1883 a priests' house and church were erected and the place named after Archbishop Duhamel of Ottawa. By 1900 a school was added to the establishment. Though a small parish still exists under Father Beillevaire, through the advance of settlement, the half-breeds have gone elsewhere. The country has been opened up by various classes of new settlers. The opening of the country by railways took away the favorite vocation of the half-breed, freighting, and the old mission now consists of immigrants of various nationalities.

St. Paul de Metis.—The mission at St. Paul was the idea of Father Lacombe, who loved the Metis or half-breeds and understood their weaknesses and the dangers they would be subjected to by the settlement of the country by white men. The good Father conceived the plan of gathering the half-breeds into one settlement as far from the path of settlement as possible and placing them under the paternal care of the Oblate Fathers. In cooperation with the Department of the Interior four townships were secured under a grant of twenty-one years to the episcopal corporations of St. Albert, St. Boniface and Prince Albert, and a plan worked out for the redemption of the half-breeds. Father Lacombe, with the assistance of Father Therien, chose a beautiful tract of country lying between the North Saskatchewan River and Cold Lake. It was surveyed in 1896 and Father Therien sent by Bishop Grandin to lay the foundations of the half-breed colony. The first harvest was reaped in 1897. The flour and sawmill at Lac la Biche was removed to St. Paul. A school was opened that year, and two years later the Sisters of the Assumption, who already had a convent at Onion Lake, arrived and took charge of the day school. A boarding school was erected to accommodate one hundred, for children who lived too far from the mission to attend day school. Meanwhile Father Therien visited the United States to acquaint the half-breeds in that country of the colony at St. Paul. As the work increased it became a heavy tax upon the resources of the Oblates, and applications were made to other orders. Father Lacombe went to Europe for this purpose, and applied to the "Salesians" and the Premonstratensian Fathers of the Abbey of Grimbergen, Belgium. The latter sent an agent, Father Van Wettin, to investigate the project, but after the report the Premonstratensian Fathers refused to take over the mission. Resort was had to the charity of the parishes of Quebec. A new church 104 feet by 42 feet with a sacristy 42 feet by 22 feet was built in 1904. The colony suffered a severe blow in 1905 (Jan. 15th) when the boarding school was burned to the ground. But scarcely had new buildings been erected when a notable transformation of the country began. There is no place in the North-West that is immune from the invasions of the ubiquitous settler. By 1908 settlers were filling up the vacant lands around the Half-breed Reservation. It was apparent the scheme as orig-

inally planned in segregating the half-breeds in an isolated colony was doomed. It was therefore resolved to bring in a selected class of settlers and Rev. J. A. Ouellette, parish priest of Beaumont, was appointed colonization agent for this work, assisted by Father Therien. As settlers poured into the districts, new parishes were formed with St. Paul as a centre—St. Vincent, Bonnyville, St. Louis. In 1909 the reserve was thrown open for homesteading and the unique experiment was a thing of the past.

Similar missions are carried on at Heart Lake, Cold Lake, 1874, Riviere Qui Barre, 1877, Hobbema (formerly Bear Hills), 1881, Stony Plain, 1885. In 1874 Emile Joseph Legal, a professor of mathematics from Nantes, was ordained to the priesthood. He came to Canada in 1881 and was appointed to missions among the Blackfeet, especially the Bloods and Peigans. Here he labored for sixteen years until he was appointed coadjutor to Bishop Grandin in 1897. He carried on successfully the work begun by Father Lacombe, a quarter of a century before.

Father Lacombe is the great Roman Catholic missionary of the Blackfeet—the black-robed voyageur of the plains. He visited them as early as 1857, with his faithful Alexis, and again in 1859. After several years among the Crees he again returned to the Blackfeet in 1871, intending to devote himself entirely to winning this warlike nation over to Christianity. Bishop Grandin, however, had other plans for Father Lacombe which kept him from his beloved mission until 1881, when he returned and spent several years among them, rendering valuable service in pacifying Blackfeet tribes during the building of the Canadian Pacific Railway and the Rebellion of 1885.

FRENCH-CANADIAN PARISHES.

A list of the most important French-Canadian parishes and missions established in Alberta, with appropriate notes concerning each, is given as follows:

Notre Dame de Lourdes (Lamoureux, P. O.), founded in 1875; chapel built by Father Blanchet, 1877; Father Dorais in charge from 1891-1908, the year of his death; present church completed 1903; Father Berchmans, 1909; Father Pilon, 1909-1912; Father Normandeau, 1912-1914.

St. Emerence, Riviere Qui Barre, founded 1893.

St. Jean Baptiste, Morinville; founded by Abbe Morin, 1891. Father Harnois, first parish priest, 1892. Daughters of Jesus from Kermaria, Brittany, established a convent in 1903; present beautiful church dedicated by Bishop Legal, March, 1908.

St. Vital, Beaumont; founded 1892 by Abbe Morin. First priest, Father Perrault, O.M.I., 1893; Father Poitras, 1894-1896; Father Beauparlant, 1897; Father Ethier, 1898-1902; Father Bouchard, 1902-1905; Father Ouellette, 1905-1907.

Other parishes: St. Pierre, Villeneuve, 1900; St. Emile, Legal, 1899, named after the Bishop of St. Albert; Spruce Grove and Egg Lake, 1900; Sion, 1911; Brosseau, 1905; Bonnyville, named after Father Bonny, the first priest, 1910.

When the railway was built from Edmonton to Calgary and south to Macleod, in 1891 and 1892, Catholic churches sprang up in every important town. The same happened when the Canadian Northern was built into Edmonton in 1905; and when the Grand Trunk Pacific was built in 1910. The names of the parishes may be designated by the names of the various towns and villages along these lines. These parishes are composed of all nationalities of the Catholic faith, differing in this respect from those described in the remainder of this chapter on the Catholic Church in Alberta.

POLISH MISSIONS.

The Galicians, Bukowinians, Rumanians and other foreign nationalities from Central Europe who settled in Alberta from 1892 to the end of the century belonged to three great categories of religious denominations: Roman Catholics, Greek Ruthenian Catholics or Uniates and Green Orthodox. The Catholics of these groups had no resident priest among them until 1898. They had been visited frequently by Fathers Dorais, from Lamoureux, and Nordmann, who could speak German. In 1900 a Polish priest, Father Olczewski, was ordained by Bishop Grandin and commissioned to carry on missionary work among these nationalities, situated principally in the country East of Edmonton, and South of the Saskatchewan River. He established his headquarters at a point since called Krakow, where he built a church in 1907. Under his auspices missions were founded, 1904, at Skaro, Beaver Lake, on the Little Vermilion River, between Edmonton and Athabasca. At Skaro some Polish young ladies established a convent in 1904, and were consecrated by Bishop Legal under the name of "Auxiliaries of Apostolate." Later the sisterhood extended its work to Krakow and Edmonton.

Father Olczewski was soon joined by Fathers Albert and William Kulawy, both Oblates, and sent to Canada to look after the welfare of Ruthenian and Polish missions, and in 1903 a third brother, Father Paul Kulawy, was sent to reside at St. Albert. Next year he established a parish for these nationalities at Round Hill and built a church there, which was dedicated by Bishop Legal in July, 1907.

A Ruthenian mission was established at Rabbit Hills, eighteen miles southwest of Edmonton, in 1903. The church was dedicated with beautiful and pious demonstrations on the feast of Corpus Christi, June 2, 1904. A procession escorted Bishop Legal with banners, ikons and lighted tapers to the church through arches of foliage and flags of the national colors of Galicia—yellow and blue.

St. John Nepomuck, another mission of this nationality, was established in a Polish community fifteen miles North of Daysland by Father Kulawy in 1909.

GREEK RUTHENIAN MISSIONS.

Among the foreign nationalities of Alberta mentioned above, reference has been made to the Galicians of the Greek Ruthenian rite or Uniates. They submit to the jurisdiction of the Pope of Rome. The liturgy of their church is not in the Greek but in the Ruthenian language. In Galicia there is a separate Ruthenian hierarchy distinct from the Latin hierarchy in the same territory, with jurisdiction only over the members of its own rite.

Before these people in Alberta had been visited by Bishop Legal or any of the priests under his jurisdiction, some of the Galician settlers secured a visit from two priests of the Greek Orthodox Church who tried to induce the Greek Catholics to forsake their mother church. This was in 1897. In September of the same year, Father Demytrow, a Uniate priest, visited the district and was granted the right by Bishop Legal to exercise his priestly ministry among the Galician people. Steps were taken at once to secure priests of the Greek Ruthenian rite through the Propaganda at Rome. In the spring of 1898 the Metropolitan of Galicia sent Father Tymkiewitz to Alberta. This young priest seems to have been of the class that favored soft beds and good meals, for in less than six months he left the Province for the United States. Before he left he succeeded in inducing Bishop Grandin to vest the church property at Star in a committee of three, known as trustees or syndics of the mission. The trust created by this act gave rise to one of the most protracted and memorable lawsuits in the history of the courts of Alberta—the famous Star Church lawsuit (*Zacklinski vs. Polishie*, 1908 A. C. 65). After the departure of Father Tymkiewitz, Father Zacklinski took his place in 1900. In order to obtain a regular supply of priests for the Galician settlements, Father Lacombe visited Vienna and Lemberg in 1900. In response to this appeal the Archbishop of Lemberg sent Father Basil Zoldak to Alberta to survey the situation. He arrived in Edmonton in 1902 (February 15th), and returned to Galicia in May, accompanied by Father Jan, to secure more priests. Accordingly three Basilian Fathers, a lay brother and four sisters, "Servants of Mary," were welcomed at Edmonton in October of that year.

The three priests, Fathers Filas, Dydyk and Strozky, established new missions at Monaster, Star, Edmonton, Rabbit Hill, and went on periodical visits to Lethbridge and the Crow's Nest Pass. Father Filas was appointed to the vacant episcopate of Stanislow in Galicia in 1906, and Father Dydyk became the Superior of Ruthenian missions in Alberta. He was later transferred to Winnipeg. He was succeeded by Fathers Fili-

pow and Tymocko, with headquarters at Mundare. Father Tymocko died in 1909. His place was taken by Father Kryzanowski. In 1910 a fine church, of Muscovite style, was built at Mundare, the first of all the Ruthenian churches in Alberta. In the same year this church was dedicated by the Metropolitan of Lemberg, who had come to Canada and the North-West and spent some time in the Galician settlements. Three years later (1913) Bishop Budka was appointed Bishop of the Greek Ruthenian Rite, with jurisdiction over all Ruthenian Catholics in Canada.

CHAPTER XV.

CHURCH HISTORY—(Continued).

ANGLICAN MISSIONS IN ALBERTA.

In order to understand the growth of Anglican missions in Alberta it will be necessary to consider briefly the whole field of Western Canada prior to the founding of the first mission or parish in Alberta. The first Anglican church was established at Red River by the Hudson's Bay Company. In 1820 Rev. John West was sent out from England as chaplain to the Selkirk settlers by the Company. Mr. West also offered his services to the Church Missionary Society founded a few years earlier in England (1799) to promote "missions in Africa and the East" among the heathen.

The Society accepted the offer and granted one hundred pounds to support a mission and a school among the Indians of Red River, and soon afterwards undertook the establishment of schools and missions throughout the North-West. From the Red River the work spread to the Saskatchewan, the Athabaska, the Mackenzie and the Far North.

One of the first things Rev. John West did was to found a school in connection with St. John's Church, the progenitor of St. Johns' College of today. West returned to England in 1823, and was succeeded by Rev. David Jones, who remained until 1839. He was followed by Rev. William Cochran, who came out to assist Mr. Jones in 1825. When Mr. Jones left Cochran had four parishes to look after. He was associated with the formation of St. Peter's settlement for the Indians. Rev. J. Smithurst was the next missionary to come from England. He arrived in 1839. Henry Budd, one of the Indian boys, induced by West to enter St. John's School, was ordained as a missionary in 1840, and was sent to open a mission among the Crees at Cumberland House. Here he was visited by Smithurst in 1842, the first Anglican white missionary to visit the Saskatchewan. Rev. Abram Cowley came out in 1841 and began work at Fairford House, and later among the natives on Lake Manitoba. Next year Rev. James Hunter arrived from England and took charge of the mission at Cumberland House, or The Pas, and Henry Budd moved farther up the Saskatchewan to Nepowewin.

Bishop Mountain of Montreal visited Red River in 1844 and confirmed 846 candidates, white and native. Owing to the generosity of James Lieth, a Hudson's Bay factor, an endowment was established in 1849 to support a bishop in Rupert's Land, and on May 29th, of that year, Rev. David Ander-

son was consecrated Bishop of Rupert's Land in Canterbury Cathedral. He arrived at Red River the same year. A year later Bishop Anderson ordained Henry Budd, who continued for a quarter of a century among his own people. With Bishop Anderson came Rev. John Chapman and Rev. Robert Hunt. Mr. Hunt was sent to superintend the work at Lac la Ronge, where Henry Settee, a companion of Rev. Henry Budd, and a graduate of St. John's College, was conducting a mission. When Settee was a very small child his father carried him in his arms to Rev. John West to train him for the service of the church. Here we may note that Charles Pratt and John Hope, natives, also graduated in the early days from St. John's College and for many years carried on missionary work on behalf of the Anglican Church among the natives of Red River and the Saskatchewan.

Under Bishop Anderson missionary work developed rapidly and several new men came out from England. During the next fifteen years there arrived in rapid succession John Horden, W. W. Kirkby, A. E. Watkins, W. Stagg, H. T. T. Smith and R. Phair. Walter Mason, a Wesleyan missionary, who came to the West with James Evans in 1840, received Anglican orders and joined the diocese in 1852. From St. John's College a number of native missionaries were ordained, namely: Robert McDonald, whose pathetic appeal brought the great Bompas to the wilds of the Mackenzie and the Yukon; Thomas Vincent, Thomas Cook, J. V. McKay, James Settee, H. Cochrane, Henry Budd Jr., Baptiste Spence and G. Brace.

In the year 1859 Archdeacon Hunter went to Fort Simpson and the following year W. W. Kirkby went as far as Fort Good Hope, where he was joined by Rev. Robt. Macdonald, and continued to Fort McPherson, La Pierre's House and to Fort Yukon. Meanwhile missions had been established at Touchwood Hills in 1857, under Charles Pratt, an Indian catechist, and at Fort Ellice.

Bishop Anderson resigned in 1864 and returned to England. Next year two men arrived in the West whose labors and achievements will for all time redound to the glory of the Anglican Church in Canada. These were Rev. Robert Machray and Rev. William Carpenter Bompas. Machray was a great church statesman, Bompas an incomparable missionary. For forty years Machray led his people with wisdom and success. He created synodical government in his diocese and in his ecclesiastical province. He was largely instrumental in the formation of the General Synod for the Church of England in Canada, and became the first Primate. He was the faithful shepherd of his flock, the true "Father in God" to his clergy, the kind, but strict educator of youth, the trusted adviser of the civil power, the Joshua of the Church in the Great Lone Land.

For over forty years Bompas devoted his life to the Indians and Eskimos of the Athabaska, Mackenzie and the Yukon. As new dioceses were formed, the indefatigable missionary bishop moved into the new field, ever breaking new ground and blazing fresh trails in the Far North. Like



MCDONALD HOTEL, EDMONTON



Y. M. C. A., EDMONTON

Faraud and Grollier, his inveterate antagonists for the spiritual conquest of the natives of the North, he earned the title Pope Leo gave to the Oblates—"The Martyrs of the Cold."

Rev. Robert Machray succeeded Bishop Anderson as the second bishop of Rupert's Land. He was consecrated in Canterbury June 24, 1865, and next day ordained Rev. William Carpenter Bompas, who had decided to come out to the Mackenzie District in response to a letter from Robert Macdonald, missionary to the Locheux Indians. In the letter Macdonald said he was dying and pleaded for some one to take his place. Bishop Anderson read the letter at the Church Missionary Society's anniversary service at St. Bride's Church May 1st of that year. "Shall no one come forward," cried the bishop, "to take up the standard of the Lord and occupy the ground?" After the service Bompas walked into the vestry and offered to go at once. He reached Fort Simpson on Christmas Eve, 1864, where he was welcomed by Mr. W. W. Kirkby, in charge of that mission, and thus began that career that shall long remain as a shining and inspiring example of heroic service and true missionary devotion.

Under Bishop Machray the missions of the Anglican Church grew rapidly, and it became necessary in 1872 to organize three dioceses within the original diocese of Rupert's Land—Moosonee under Bishop Horden, episcopal seat, Moose Factory; Saskatchewan under Bishop McLean, episcopal seat, Prince Albert; Athabaska, under Bishop Bompas, episcopal seat, Fort Simpson. The work in the dioceses of Athabaska and Moosonee, since it was wholly among Indians and Eskimos, was supported by the Church Missionary Society. In the diocese of Saskatchewan it was mainly under the protection of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel and the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge.

Bishop Bompas held his first diocesan synod September 4, 1876, at Fort Simpson. His clergy numbered only three—Archdeacon McDonald, A. Garrioch, both natives of the country, and Rev. W. D. Reeve, his single English comrade. In addition he had four active schoolmasters. He divided his diocese into four great divisions, viz.:

- (a) Locheux Mission, under McDonald.
- (b) McKenzie River Mission, under Reeve.
- (c) Athabaska and Peace River, under Garrioch.
- (d) Great Slave Lake Mission, under the schoolmasters.

By 1882 there were nine stations, viz.: Fort Simpson, Fort Vermilion, Dunvegan, Fort Rae, Fort Resolution, Fort Chipewyan, Fort Norman, Fort McPherson and Rampart House on the Porcupine River in the Yukon.

In 1884 the diocese of Athabaska River was subdivided; the southern portion traversed by the Athabaska and Peace rivers became the diocese of Athabaska, under Bishop Young. The northern portion, extending from the 60th parallel of latitude to the Arctic Ocean became the diocese of Mackenzie River, Bishop Bompas electing of his own accord to become Bishop of Mackenzie River. When this diocese was divided into two in

1891, Bompas again chose the frontier diocese of Selkirk (since named the diocese of Yukon), leaving the Mackenzie River under Bishop Reeve. He did heroic service among the miners of the Yukon in the stirring days of the gold rush to that district. In 1905 the exacting labors of forty years compelled him to resign and on June 9, 1906, the "apostle of the North," as he was familiarly known, died at Carcross. He was succeeded by Bishop Stringer, who had come to the diocese in 1892, and had served several years at Herschell Island, the most northerly mission in the British Empire.

Bishop Reeve retired from the See of Mackenzie River in 1907. But it was not until six years later that Bishop Lucas, a Church Missionary Society missionary of the Far North, could be elected because there was no Endowment Fund for the maintenance of the bishopric. The work in this diocese is mostly among Indians—Chipewyan, Slavi, Mountain, Tukudh, Eskimos. A boarding school has been carried on at Hay River for a number of years. Encouraging work is being conducted among the Eskimos at Aklavik and along the Arctic Coast to Coronation Gulf. Services are held more or less regularly at all the forts along the Mackenzie for the white settlers and the Indians.

The whole Bible, Prayer Book and Hymn Book have been translated into the Tukudh language, while the Slavi Indians have the New Testament and Prayer Book. Work is in progress in translating these works in the Eskimo language.

In the Diocese of Athabaska Bishop Young was succeeded by Bishop Holmes in 1903, who continued until 1912, when Bishop Robins, formerly Church Missionary Society Organizing Secretary, was elected. Indian missions (Beaver, Chipewyan and Slavi tribes) have been conducted at Lesser Slave Lake since 1886, at Whitefish Lake since 1891, and Wabasca since 1894. For a number of years a mission was conducted near Peace River, in the Shaftesbury settlement, under Rev. T. Brick, and afterwards under Rev. Murdock Johnston and Rev. Robert Holmes. Mr. Johnston began the first Anglican services at Grand Prairie. In October, 1909, Rev. J. W. Moxhay became the first rector of Grand Prairie.

Following this summary of Anglican missions in Northern Alberta and the Far North, let us turn to the southern part of Alberta and review the development there. The Diocese of Saskatchewan, with its centre at Prince Albert, stretched eastward as far as Cumberland House, southward to the International Boundary, westward to the Rocky Mountains and northward to the watershed of the Athabaska River; thus it comprised all of what is now Central and Southern Alberta.

Owing to the rapid influx of settlers following the construction of the Canadian Pacific Railway into the territory west of Winnipeg, the diocese of Qu'Appelle was erected in 1884, comprising a part of the diocese of Rupert's Land, and a part of the diocese of Saskatchewan. The first bishop of the new diocese was Bishop Anson. Four years later the diocese

of Calgary was formed, comprising the then provisional district of Alberta. Bishop McLean died in 1886 and was succeeded by Bishop Pinkham, who also became Bishop of the new diocese of Calgary, continuing to hold the two Sees until a sufficient sum was raised to provide an adequate endowment fund for the Bishop of Calgary. By 1902 the sum of \$12,000 had been raised for this purpose, mostly in England through the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, the Church Missionary Society, the Colonial Bishopric's Fund and the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge. On September 25, 1903, Bishop Pinkham resigned from the bishopric of Saskatchewan and in October of the same year the Provincial Synod elected Rev. J. A. Newnham, Bishop of Saskatchewan. Previous to this appointment, the Bishops of Western Canada had been appointed by the Archbishop of Canterbury, Bishop Pinkham being the last to be so appointed. But in 1902 the union of the whole of the Church of England in Canada was consummated and increased autonomy bestowed upon the Union.

The work of uniting the Church in Canada had been in progress for twelve years. In 1890 a conference was held in Winnipeg, at which a basis of union was adopted. A General Synod was formed in 1893. From this date until 1902 time was spent in securing the consent of the Diocesan and Provincial Synods. In 1902 the union was confirmed by the General Synod of Canada. At the same time the Missionary Society of the Church of England in Canada was formed to carry on work in Canada analogous to the work of the great English Societies referred to above. This Society has given strong support to the Church of England in Alberta.

From 1902 to 1913 were years of great prosperity and increase in population in Alberta. The Diocese of Calgary, comprising an area of 110,000 square miles became too large, and in August, 1913, it was divided by the Provincial Synod of Rupert's Land, the northern portion, that North of township 42, forming the Diocese of Edmonton. The Right Reverend Henry Allan Gray, elected by the clergy of the diocese, consecrated March 25, 1914, became the first Bishop of Edmonton.

We are now in a position to give details of the progress of the Anglican Church in Alberta—in the dioceses of Calgary and Edmonton.

In 1875 Rev. Canon Newton was sent to Edmonton by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. He established the first Anglican Mission in Edmonton and labored in the Saskatchewan for twenty years among the white settlers, going as far south as Red Deer, and including Bear Lake, Sturgeon and Fort Saskatchewan in his regular missionary visits.

The first parish of the Anglican Church in Alberta was established at Edmonton in 1876. That year Bishop McLean visited Edmonton and arranged for the building of a church. Mr. Malcolm Groat gave nine acres west of the Hudson's Bay Reserve and in 1877 the church was built. This was All Saints Parish. In 1890 a new building was erected in another part of the parish, and again in 1895 the site now occupied by All Saints

Pro-cathedral was chosen. The first deacon of the parish was Rev. Charles Cunningham, 1891-1893; then Rev. Alfred Stunden, 1893-1897. Rev. Henry Allan Gray, now the beloved Bishop of Edmonton was transferred from Holy Trinity, South Edmonton, in 1897 and took charge of the parish. In 1909 Rev. G. H. Webb, who had spent some time as General Missionary for the Missionary Society for the Church of England in Canada in Alberta, was appointed associate pastor, and when Archdeacon Gray was raised to episcopal dignity Rev. Mr. Webb became Archdeacon and rector of the parish, and All Saints Church, a Pro-Cathedral. Archdeacon Webb resigned in 1918, and was succeeded by the present rector, Rev. E. Pierce-Goulding.

In 1883 Rev. J. W. Tims, missionary to the Blackfeet at Blackfoot Crossing, began to hold services in Calgary at the request of the people of that place, until a regular missionary could be appointed. Next year, through the efforts of Bishop McLean, the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel sent out Rev. E. P. Smith, from Oxford, who arrived May 24, 1884. He frequently visited Red Deer and Fish Creek and remained in the diocese until 1887, and was succeeded by Rev. A. F. W. Cooper. The mission at Lethbridge began in 1886, Rev. J. F. Pritchard, first incumbent. Shortly afterward a mission was opened at Macleod under Rev. Ronald Hilton, and at the time of the first meeting of the diocese of Calgary, February, 1889, there were established additional missions to settlers at Pincher Creek and Banff. In 1889 Bishop Pinkham constituted the Rural Deaneries of Calgary under Rural Dean A. F. W. Cooper, and of Macleod, under Rural Dean J. F. Pritchard. When the latter left the diocese, Rev. Ronald Hilton was appointed Rural Dean of Macleod. Through gifts of the Colonial and Continental Missionary Society in England missions were opened at High River and Sheep Creek in 1891, and the next year Rev. H. B. Brashier, of Toronto, started a permanent mission at Red Deer. New missions sprang up along the Calgary and Edmonton Railway in the principal towns—Innisfail, Olds, Bowden, Lacombe, South Edmonton—with money supplied largely by the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge. In the early nineties a mission was opened at Beaver Lake, east of Edmonton, and soon after at Fort Saskatchewan, Rev. G. C. d'Easum in charge, where he remained for over twenty years. By the middle of 1894 the boundaries of twenty parishes had been fixed. The membership of the parishes and missions of the diocese was about 2,000, ministered to by 15 clergy. Two years later (1896) the clergy in the diocese numbered 23. In 1894 the Deanery of Edmonton was formed comprising all of the diocese north of township 37. Rev. Alfred Stunden was appointed the first rural dean.

In 1895 Bishop Pinkham divided the diocese into two Archdeaconries, appointing Dean Cooper and Rev. J. W. Tims Archdeacons of the White and Indian work respectively.

These were years of great difficulty in the matter of financing the

schemes of the diocese. Only three of the parishes were self-supporting—Edmonton, Calgary and Lethbridge. The English societies which were contributing the greater part of the burden of maintaining missions in the dioceses of the North-West began to retrench gradually after the consolidation of the Church of England in Canada. The Society for the propagation of the Gospel was paying annually at this time nearly \$45,000 to the Canadian dioceses. In the diocese of Calgary this Society was contributing more than half of the total of the diocesan funds. In 1896 the Society gave notice of a reduction of 10 per cent and that after the year 1900 it desired to be relieved of all pecuniary responsibility in Canada, and pointed out that it was the duty of the older dioceses of Canada to support the younger dioceses of the Dominion. Finally, however, the bishops of the Western dioceses prevailed upon the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in 1902 to suspend its policy of reduction in view of the unprecedented increase in immigration from the Old Country to the West that followed the turn of the century, and in view of the danger of straining the loyalty of the adherents of the Anglican Church. Accordingly a grant of nearly \$40,000 was made that year to be spent in the ecclesiastical province of Rupert's Land. To celebrate the 200th anniversary of the founding of the Society, a bi-century fund was raised, 1,800 pounds sterling of which was paid to the Diocese of Calgary, spread over a period of five years.

The conditions in Western Canada at this time prompted energetic action on the part of the Colonial and Continental Society. This Society has done for the white settlers what the Church Missionary Society has done for the Indians. It has supported lonely missionaries in remote settlements, camps, mines and fisheries. But its greatest work in Canada has been its success in sustaining the Barr Colony, established in 1903. This Colony lies within the civil Provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan, but within the diocese of Saskatchewan. Rev. George E. Lloyd, now Bishop Lloyd of the Diocese of Saskatchewan since 1922, and principal of Emmanuel College, Saskatoon, under the aegis of this Society, led the colonists through many trials and misfortunes. The work of the Society in this field will rank in days to come as one of the most striking ventures of faith and achievement in the history of any church in Canada. In one summer it sent out sixty missionaries in one ship, built sixty churches, popularly called "Canterbury Cathedrals," and sixty parsonages, similarly described as "Lambeth Palaces."

The threat of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel was not without value to the dioceses of the West, for in 1902 the people of the diocese of Calgary raised \$14,000 of the \$19,500 spent that year in the diocese. The consummation of the consolidation of the Church of England in Canada this year aroused the interest of the dioceses of Eastern Canada and especially of the Women's Auxiliaries, which was reflected in increased beneficence toward the poorer missions of the West.

The Deanery of Red Deer was formed in 1902, comprising that portion

of Central Alberta between townships 30 and 44, with Rev. J. Hinchcliffe, rural dean.

In November, 1905, a general missionary, Rev. G. H. Webb, was appointed for the Missionary Society of the Church of England in Canada in the diocese. The demands taxed the financial resources of growing parishes. The growth of the church is clearly indicated by comparing the statistics of 1906 and 1907, the latter year being the one of the largest immigration previous to this time. The number of parishes and missions increased from twenty-three in 1906 to forty-one in 1907, and the number of congregations from seventy-nine to one hundred and fifty-nine in the same time.

St. Hilda's Ladies College, a girls' boarding school, was erected in Calgary in 1905, and opened in September of that year, and is still in operation.

In 1908 Bishop Pinkham College was founded to provide a Boys' School on the model of the English schools, or those of Eastern Canada, and in time to provide a divinity school for the training of the young men of the diocese for the clergy of the Anglican Church.

The year 1910 was a memorable one in the history of the Church of England in Western Canada, because of the appeal of the Archbishops of Canterbury and York to the Church and people of England to send fifty of the best clergy, annually for ten years, for the expansion of the Church of England in Western Canada. At the same time the Archbishops' Western Canada Fund was organized to maintain them. In May of that year the advance guard of this Army of the Cross arrived under Rev. W. G. Boyd, Chaplain to the Archbishop of Canterbury, and established headquarters at Edmonton, and founded the Edmonton Mission of the Archbishops' Fund (St. Faith's). Another group of these workers established in Southern Alberta, under Rev. Canon Mowat, with a central mission house in Lethbridge.

Under the Archbishops' Alberta Mission four parishes were established in the City of Edmonton and six sites purchased and handed over to the Synod of the Diocese of Edmonton. Stations were opened at Wabamun, Stony Plain, Entwistle, Edson, Lac la Nonne, Paddle River, Clyde, and at several other points west and north of Edmonton. In the southern part of the Province, stations were opened at Cardston, Boundary Creek, Warner, Coutts, Hazelmere, Stand Off. In 1913 Archbishops' Western Canada Fund missions were started in the Diocese of Athabaska, under Rev. Hugh Speke. During ten years (1910-1920) over \$900,000 was raised in England for the Archbishops' Western Canada Fund. Out of the total sum raised, it was the intention to give \$50,000 to each of the three dioceses—Calgary, Edmonton, and Qu'Appelle. But when the fund was closed, only 37,095 pounds sterling were available. At the celebration of the 100th anniversary of the founding of the first Anglican mission in the

West, held in Winnipeg in 1920, this sum was delivered in trust for the three dioceses.

In 1910 the four deaneries of the diocese were cancelled, and the territory divided into seven deaneries, viz.: Calgary, under Rev. Canon Stocken; Edmonton, Rural Dean Boyd; Lethbridge, Rural Dean Murrell Wright; Macleod, Rural Dean G. B. Hall; Red Deer, Rural Dean W. Whitehead; High River, Rural Dean R. D. Stamer. The rural dean of Wetaskiwin was not appointed until 1912, when Rev. W. W. Alexander was appointed to the office. In the meantime Wetaskiwin was under the rural deanery of Edmonton. In 1913, the Archdeaconry of Calgary was divided, one portion forming the Archdeaconry of Red Deer, under Archdeacon A. J. B. Dewdney.

The last meeting of the Diocese of Calgary before its division in 1913 was held in July of that year. This was the thirteenth meeting of the synod, and is a convenient date to measure the growth of the Church of England in Alberta. When the first synod of this diocese convened on February 21, 1889, there were ten priests and one deacon in the whole diocese. At the last meeting of the synod of the old diocese in July, 1913, there were one hundred and forty-nine parishes, thirty-two of which were self-supporting, and although some of the parishes were vacant at the time there were ninety-four priests, eight deacons and thirty lay readers.

The Diocese of Edmonton was incorporated by an Act of the Legislative Assembly of Alberta in 1914. Under Bishop Gray the diocese, notwithstanding the crippling effects of the war, has made steady progress. With Edmonton, the capital and the University City of the Province, as the episcopal centre of the diocese, an opportunity has been presented of recruiting the young men of the University for the clergy and thus solving one of the most difficult problems of the church. In 1920 steps were taken by the synod to establish a divinity school, St. Aidan's College, in Edmonton, in affiliation with the University of Alberta, and a Divinity Students' Fund is being raised for this purpose.

INDIAN MISSIONS OF THE ANGLICAN CHURCH.

Indian missions appealed strongly to the leaders of the Church of England in the West. As soon as the tribes were settled on their respective reserves in the Province, missions and schools were established among them. In the early seventies, James Settee, and Wm. Stagg, native missionaries, worked intermittently among the Blackfeet of Southern Alberta, and since that time the Anglican Church has been particularly active among the Blackfeet-speaking people of Southern Alberta, leaving the Crees, in the North, to the Methodist and Roman Catholic Churches.

In 1879 Rev. Geo. McKay, of Prince Albert, opened a mission at Fort Macleod among the Peigans. The next year (1880) Rev. Samuel Trivett opened a mission among the Bloods, and in 1882 he was joined by Rev. H. T.

Bourne, who opened a mission at Red Crow's Camp. In 1883 Rev. J. W. Tims was sent from England to Blackfoot Crossing by the Church Missionary Society. He was joined in 1885 by Rev. H. W. G. Stocken, who came out on the invitation of Mr. Tims. A mission among the Sarcees was established in 1886 by Rev. R. Inkster, of Prince Albert. In the following year he was succeeded by Rev. H. W. G. Stocken. Other clergy who have been engaged in mission work on these Reserves have been: Rev. J. Hinchcliffe, Rev. F. Swainson, Rev. A. de B. Owen, Rev. C. P. Owen, Rev. S. J. Stocken, Rev. C. P. H. Owen, Rev. G. E. Gale, Rev. W. R. Haynes and Rev. S. Middleton.

After mastering their language these devoted servants gave the Blackfoot-speaking people the Lord's Prayer, the Creed, the Ten Commandments, prayers for morning and evening, a dictionary, a grammar, the Gospel of St. Matthew, parts of St. John and other Gospels, and a number of hymns, printed in the Blackfoot language. This work was done mostly by Messrs. Tims and Stocken, assisted by Rev. J. Hinchcliffe and others. At first Roman characters were used, but Mr. Tims adapted the syllabic system, and provided a system that is now in general use among all the tribes of the Blackfoot nation. The first sermon without the aid of an interpreter was preached in 1885 at the time of the Rebellion.

The Anglican Blackfoot missions have been supported mainly by the Church Missionary Society and the Missionary Society of the Church of England in Canada. The Women's Auxiliary Societies of Ontario took a great interest in this work. The Women's Auxiliary of the Diocese of Toronto supported a woman missionary (Miss Perkes) at the Blackfoot Reserve; the Woman's Auxiliary of Huron, a lady missionary (Miss Busby) at the Blood Reserve; the Women's Auxiliary of Ontario a lady missionary (Miss Brown) at the Peigan Reserve. The Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge assisted these missions by printing the books in the Blackfoot languages necessary for the intelligent and effective conduct of the work. In 1892 the Methodist Church abandoned its mission among the Bloods and the Anglican Church purchased the establishment for \$1,000.

Missionary work was supplemented by schools. In 1892 the Anglican Church maintained three day schools on the Blackfoot Reserve, three on the Blood Reserve, one on the Peigan Reserve and two on the Sarcee Reserve.

Day schools finally were proved to be impracticable for Indian children, and so boarding schools were established at each mission. Assistance was received from the Department of Indian Affairs for the maintenance of those schools, first, to the extent of rations of flour and beef for the children, and later changing this to a grant of \$72 annually per child. Assistance was also given by the Government towards the cost of buildings erected from time to time for this purpose.

The operation of these Indian schools became increasingly difficult.

The Church Missionary Society, and the Missionary Society of the Church of England in Canada, gradually withdrew their financial support. Toward the cost of the schools the Indian Department contributed about 60 per cent, the Anglican Church about 15 per cent, leaving the balance to be carried as a deficit until in 1909 it totalled over \$7,000. But the Department of Indian Affairs recognizing the character of the work done for the welfare of the Indians came to the rescue and paid \$5,000 of the debt. This, with an increase in the per capita grant, and the increasing earning power of the Indian people saved the schools from extinction. But the difficulty of financing the whole scheme of the Blackfeet missions still constitutes a difficult problem for the Church of England in this field.

In 1895 Mr. Tims and Mr. Stocken exchanged missions. A hospital was established on the Blackfoot Reserve in 1897. The Indian Department of the Government erected the building. The salary of the resident missionary (for many years Dr. Rose) was paid by the Church Missionary Society and the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge, while the salaries of the nurses were paid by the Women's Auxiliaries of Ontario. An Indian Industrial School, similar to one founded and carried on at High River by the Roman Catholic Church, was established at Calgary in 1895 and placed under Rev. H. G. Hogbin, but after several years it was abandoned (1907).

The work of combining evangelical and school work has continued from the first on all the reserves, and the results justify the faith of those who founded them. Archdeacon Tims and Canon Stocken are still (1923) in the services of the Church in connection with these missions. Their names will be always identified with the good work of leading the Blackfeet savages up the path of civilization.

The sacrifices of the churches, Anglican, Roman Catholic and Methodist among the Blackfeet have transformed them from savages to citizens, in almost every respect, except that they have not the franchise. Their savage, sickly rites of torturing the body to propitiate the sun are unknown to the generation of today. Polygamy has been abandoned. They are no longer shiftless nomads wandering away from their reserves with guns and tomahawks. They earn their living and are making progress in the arts of field and animal husbandry. Without the help of the missionaries the civil authorities would have merely fed and clothed the savages. The churches, through the potent factor of religion, have elevated them to at least the fundamentals of Christian civilization.

The Church Missionary Society, which had spent vast sums in carrying the Gospel to the Indians and the Eskimos from Hudson's Bay to the Yukon, and which had sent so many able and devoted men—West, Anderson, Kirkby, Hunter, Bompas, Holmes, McKay, Tims, Young, Lucas, Stringer—decided in 1920 to retire from the Canadian Field and to hand over its task to the Missionary Society of the Church of England in Can-

ada. This body has now the control of pastoral and evangelistic work of Anglican missions among the Indians and Eskimos.

The year 1920 is an appropriate date to close this summary of the growth of the Anglican Church in Western Canada. It marks the lapse of a century from the time that Rev. John West arrived at Red River and founded the first Anglican mission among the Indians of Rupert's Land. The event was celebrated in October, 1920, at Winnipeg, with becoming ceremony and thanksgiving. The parish that John West founded among the heartsick pioneers at Red River one hundred years ago has grown to be one of the most opulent cities of the Dominion of Canada and the centre of a great ecclesiastical province comprising ten dioceses.

THE PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH.

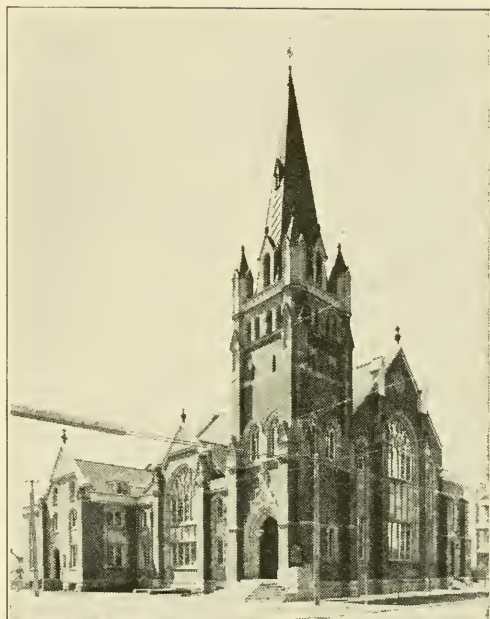
We have noticed that in dealing with Anglican and Methodist missions in Western Canada, the initiative in establishing the missions was taken by the ruling bodies of these denominations in the Old Country. Roman Catholic and Presbyterian missions were first established in the West by the ruling bodies of these denominations in Canada, though we have seen that many of the Oblate Fathers were sons of Old France.

Many of the Selkirk settlers were Presbyterians, and it was the intention of Lord Selkirk that a Presbyterian minister should accompany them to the Red River. But for over a generation after their arrival in their new home, they were without a minister of their own religion and worshipped with the Anglicans of the colony. After applying in vain to the Hudson's Bay Company and to the Church of Scotland, they appealed to the Presbyterian Church of Canada for a minister. Accordingly Rev. John Black was sent out in 1857 to Red River, and founded the first Presbyterian Church in Western Canada in the Parish of Kildonan, so named because many of the original colonists came from the parish of Kildonan in the north of Scotland. Eleven years later Rev. James Nisbet arrived from upper Canada to assist Mr. Black. In 1866 Mr. Nisbet was sent by the congregation of Kildonan to establish a mission in what is now the Province of Saskatchewan. He was accompanied by Mr. John McKay, a famous buffalo hunter, who acted as his interpreter, and Mr. Adam McBeth, a teacher. After a trip of fifty days from Fort Garry, the party reached the site of the present city of Prince Albert, and established a mission there. Mr. McKay afterwards became an ordained missionary and ministered for many years on the reserve of Chief Mistawasis near Prince Albert, rendering loyal and valuable service during the half-breed rebellion of 1885. Mr. Nisbet remained at Prince Albert until 1874. Worn out by his exacting labors he was compelled to retire to Winnipeg and died shortly afterwards.

The Presbyterian Church grew rapidly with the development of the country following the transfer of Rupert's Land to the Dominion of Can-



First Baptist Church



Knox Church (Presbyterian)

CHURCHES OF CALGARY

ada in 1870. A large proportion of the new settlers in Manitoba and the North West Territories were Scotch-Canadians from Ontario and the Maritime Provinces. In 1870 there were only five Presbyterian ministers in the whole of Western Canada—Black, Nisbet, Matheson, Fletcher and McNab. But in that year the Presbytery of Manitoba was organized, and in the following year Manitoba College, an institution of higher learning under the Presbyterian Church was founded, Rev. Geo. Bryce, Principal. A few months later the Church of Scotland sent out Rev. John Hart, as professor in Manitoba College. Soon the work of the College claimed the whole time of Principal Bryce, who was also pastor of Knox Church, Winnipeg. In this pastorate he was succeeded in 1874 by Rev. James Robertson—the statesman of Presbyterianism in the West, and who with Taché, Bompas and McDougall completes the most illustrious quartet of missionaries in Western Canada.

In 1874 Rev. Hugh McKellar was ordained for the work at Prince Albert. The first call for a missionary for Alberta came from Edmonton in 1880. One year later Rev. A. B. Baird established a mission there, preaching his first sermon November 6, 1881. He remained until 1887, being assisted at times in his wide field by students J. L. Campbell and A. S. Grant.

Dr. James Robertson was appointed Superintendent of Presbyterian Missions in Western Canada in 1881. This was a new position in the Church, and the powers of the new official gave some concern to the conservatively orthodox of the church. These men carried that hatred of prelacy that roused the wrath of John Knox. They feared the powers of the new Superintendent would derogate from the autonomy of the Presbytery. But Robertson's great abilities, energy and fiery zeal and above all his prophet's vision of the marvelous developments that were coming in Western Canada gradually bore down all opposition. This great prairie prophet, missionary and statesmen probably saw more clearly than any man of his day in Canada that the task of the church in the West was to march abreast of the settler, the navvy, the homesteader and the prospector to the uttermost parts of the Great Lone Land. To this task he gave his life. "Dr. Robertson staked out the country," says Rev. Canon Tucker of the Church of England in Canada, "occupied its strategic points, early aroused the church to its needs and opportunities and dotted the whole land with Presbyterian Churches and manses, and thus enabled the Presbyterian Church to work its noble and manly spirit into every fibre of our national eye."

Soon after his appointment he organized, and as years went by, he financed the Church and Manse Building Fund and so gave visibility to his work. Through this fund he caused to be erected 419 churches and 90 manses before he died in 1902.

In 1883 the Presbytery of Manitoba was divided into the Presbyteries of Winnipeg, Rock Lake and Brandon, the latter including what is now

Alberta and British Columbia. These three Presbyteries were erected into the first Presbyterian Synod of Western Canada at the same time, namely: the Synod of Manitoba and the North West Territories. In the same year a Faculty of Theology was instituted in Manitoba College, with Rev. J. M. King, Minister of St. James Square Presbyterian Church, Toronto, principal. At that time there were four Presbyterian missions in Alberta—Edmonton, Rev. A. B. Baird; Calgary, Rev. Angus Robertson; Fort Macleod and Medicine Hat.

A new Presbytery was formed in 1885, the Presbytery of Regina, Rev. P. S. Livingstone, of Regina, Moderator. In that year, Dr. Robertson visited Fort Macleod and decided to re-establish the mission there. Mr. W. P. Mackenzie, a student, had carried on services there and at Pincher Creek until the outbreak of the rebellion. In 1887 there were ten Presbyterian mission centres in Alberta, as follows: Edmonton, Rev. A. B. Baird; Calgary, Rev. J. C. Herdman; Lethbridge, Rev. C. W. McKillop; Medicine Hat, Pincher Creek, Banff, Anthracite, Cochrane, High River, Macleod.

The Edmonton Church is known as First Presbyterian Church and is the oldest Presbyterian Church in the Province. Rev. D. G. McQueen, who succeeded Mr. Baird in 1887, is still the pastor of this congregation and the Grand Old Man of Presbyterianism in Alberta—an ornament to his sacred profession in any age or place in the history of the church. The Presbyterian Church in Calgary was founded in 1883, the first services being held in I. G. Baker's store, Rev. Angus Robertson being the first minister.

The General Assembly formed the Presbytery of Calgary in 1887, bounded on the West by the Columbia River in British Columbia, Rev. Angus Robertson, first Moderator. The Presbytery of Edmonton was next formed in 1896, extending from the Red Deer River to the Arctic Ocean, possibly the largest presbytery in the world.

Work was resumed in Macleod and Pincher Creek under Rev. R. C. Tibb in 1888. Three years later (1891) these stations were separated, Rev. J. P. Grant going to Pincher Creek and Rev. Gavin Hamilton assuming charge of Macleod, 1891-1897, and succeeded by Rev. J. A. Jaffray, 1897-1906. Three elders, Messrs. R. Patterson, T. A. Struthers and T. S. McLean, of the first session, still preside at Macleod. Rev. James Buchanan was sent by Dr. Robertson in 1891 to open Presbyterian missions between Calgary and Lacombe, in 1891. He opened missions at Innisfail, Red Deer, Lacombe, Blackfalds, Bowden, Olds and Scorlett's. Rev. John Fernie was the first regular pastor at Lacombe, coming there in 1892, remaining until 1897 and succeeded by Rev. Dr. M. White.

During the interval from 1887 to 1896 the railway had been built from Macleod to Edmonton, and also from Medicine Hat to Lethbridge. As towns grew up along these lines, Presbyterian Churches and others

sprang up with them and rapidly grew from mission stations to augmented charges, and finally into self-sustaining congregations.

The early nineties were years of depression in Western Canada. The world was approaching the lowest level of prices experienced since the Napoleonic Wars. Financial depression in the West was reflected in the Home Mission and Augmentation Funds of the Church. To sustain the work in the Western mission fields, Rev. C. W. Gordon (Ralph Connor) visited Scotland in 1894 and secured support for fifty missions for a period of five years. Two years later Dr. Robertson visited the Old Country and secured support for forty missions. But other than these appeals to the Old Country the Presbyterian Church in Canada has relied solely on its own resources to carry on its splendid program of Home Missions in Western Canada. Its sturdy independence in this respect may be the reason for its great success in the West, where its adherents lead in numbers those of any other church or religious denomination.

Dr. Robertson died in 1902 and was succeeded by Rev. Dr. E. D. McLaren. By this time the work had grown so extensively that a change in organization was necessary. Dr. McLaren was appointed General Secretary of Missions and with him were associated two Superintendents, Rev. J. A. Carmichael, of Regina, for the Home Mission District of Saskatchewan and Rev. J. C. Herdman of Calgary for the Home Mission District of Alberta.

By 1904 two new presbyteries were formed in Alberta, Red Deer and Macleod, being formed out of the Presbyteries of Edmonton and Calgary respectively. There were at that time nine self-sustaining congregations, five augmented charges, and twenty-seven mission stations. Two years later (1906) there were one hundred and six congregations and mission fields. The growth of the country was reflected in the formation of new presbyteries.

In 1907 the Presbyteries of Vermilion, Lacombe and High River were formed. At the same time the Synod of Alberta was formed, Rev. Dr. McQueen being the first Moderator. The Presbytery of Castor was formed in 1913, Rev. William Miller, Moderator; Medicine Hat in 1914, Rev. J. W. Morrow, Moderator; Peace River, 1920, Rev. A. Forbes, Moderator. Expansion in Alberta is indicated further by the foundation of Robertson Theological College in 1910 at Edmonton, named after the great Superintendent Robertson. Rev. Dr. S. W. Dyde was the first principal. Dr. Dyde returned to Queen's University in 1919 and was succeeded by Rev. Dr. James Millar, the present principal.

The flow of immigration to Northern Alberta and into the valley of the Peace River directed the attention of the Synod of Alberta to the need of missions at important centres in this wide territory. Rev. A. Simpson had visited this district in 1904. In 1910 Rev. A. Forbes and Mrs. Forbes, after many years of faithful service (since 1885) at Fort Saskatchewan, undertook to establish the pioneer Presbyterian Mission in the Peace River

Valley. This mission was established at Grande Prairie and through the support of the Women's Home Missionary Society of the Presbyterian Church in Canada, an auxiliary body of the Home Mission Board, a hospital in charge of Mrs. Forbes, was established at this point in connection with the mission. Several such hospitals were established by this Society in Western Canada, mostly in connection with Presbyterian missions in foreign settlements. This was the second in Alberta, the other being the one at Vegreville, established in 1907 for the Ruthenians of that District.

Rev. J. C. Herdman, Superintendent of Missions in Alberta since 1902, retired in 1910 on account of illness. Rev. Dr. McLaren, General Secretary of Missions, resigned in the following year. Rev. A. S. Grant, a man of experience in Western missions, and with a record of heroic service among the gold diggers of the Yukon, was appointed to Dr. McLaren's place, and Rev. W. D. Reed, of Montreal, succeeded Dr. Herdman.

The General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church met at Edmonton in 1912. Naturally the Western problems of the Church took a prominent place in the proceedings. Authority was given at this Assembly for the reorganization of the Home Mission Committee. A new body, the Home Mission Board (Western Section), was formed with Rev. A. S. Grant, Convener and General Superintendent and Rev. J. H. Edmison, General Secretary. The Western field was divided into ten districts with a Superintendent for each district. Alberta was divided into the Northern District, under Rev. Wm. Simons; Central District under Rev. Wm. Shearer; Southern District under Rev. J. T. Ferguson.

In 1913 Rev. R. F. Thompson opened a new mission at Spirit River. Rev. W. McKay was put in charge, Mr. Thompson moving westward to Pouce Coupé and among settlements growing up in the Peace River Block. The hospital at Grande Prairie was taken over by the Women's Missionary Society. By 1914 the work of the Home Mission Board was extended to include social service and Evangelism. The church suffered a severe loss through the resignation of the General Superintendent, Rev. A. S. Grant in 1916. The following year Rev. Dr. G. C. Pidgeon accepted direction of this work until Rev. W. H. Sedgewick was appointed in 1917.

A new departure in mission work was made in 1916 when Rev. J. E. Duclos opened a mission and school among the French Canadians at Bonnyville. The work was supplemented by a hospital established by the Women's Missionary Society. A similar hospital by the same body was opened at Vermilion among the Ruthenians. Mr. Duclos extended his work by opening a mission at St. Paul, and another at Cold Lake in 1919, the first Protestant missions at these points. In Cardston a fine new church was completed this year with Rev. R. Aylward, minister. This field had been opened by Rev. Gavin Hamilton from Macleod, and in 1906 Rev. A. W. R. Whiteman took charge. This has been one of the hardest centres of missionary work in the whole Province and little progress has

been made among the Mormons. The tenacity of Mormonism does not yield even to the hardness and tenacity of Calvinism.

In 1921 Robertson College graduated the first minister who had received all his education in Alberta and had been born in the Province. This year also witnessed the extension of Presbyterian mission work to the Upper Peace River Valley. Rev. J. P. Henderson ministered to a field which took him a month to travel around—Pouce Coupé, St. John, Hudson's Hope, Moberly Lake, North Fork of the Pine River, South Fork of the Fine and Cut Bank—a distance of 247 miles. That year Superintendent Simons visited Fort Vermilion and it was ordered by the Presbytery of Peace River to open a station the next year with Rev. T. F. McGregor in charge, and the Women's Missionary Society promptly opened a Cottage Hospital. Here is a field where the modern means of travel do not exist. The missionary builds his boat or raft on the rivers and floats down stream every time he visits his station. In the interior he travels by dog sled or canal, or on snowshoes, as the missionaries did half a century ago between Fort Garry and Edmonton.

It is now (1923) forty years since the first Presbyterian Mission was opened in Alberta. Since that time the Presbyterian Church has grown to the first place among all the churches in Alberta, numbering at last census (1921) 120,868. In 1883 there were four missions. Now there are 121 regular ministers, 219 augmented charges, 89 students on 264 mission fields. The seed cast by Rev. John Black in Kildonan has indeed been as a grain of mustard seed.

PRESBYTERIAN MISSIONS AMONG THE RUTHENIANS OR GALICIANS.

The settlement of large numbers of Galician colonies in Western Canada raised a problem which fell in the main to the Presbyterian Church to cope with. These people were about equally divided between the Greek Catholic and Roman Catholic churches. The enjoyment of civil and religious freedom engendered a strong feeling of independence in the hearts of hundreds of these new Canadians. Dissatisfied with the mother church, they sent a deputation in 1906 to the Home Mission leaders of the Presbyterian Church. This was the beginning of the Independent Greek Church movement in Western Canada.

Provision was made for special training in Manitoba College for the young men of the Independent Greek Church. A shortened ritual was agreed upon by the ministers of this church so as to give the priest or minister more time for preaching and exposition of the scriptures during the services. The church was governed by a Consistory, constituted on the principle of a presbytery. The ministers of the church were ordained by the Consistory and not by a Bishop or other prelate. In 1907 seven young missionaries of this church were ministering in Alberta. Over one thousand families in the Province were identified with the movement.

During the next few years the Presbyterian Church assisted the Independent Greek Church and the work steadily grew. The Galician ministers asked for larger salaries and for manses and churches. The Presbyterian Church, however, would not spend money on property not vested in the Presbyterian Church, neither would it spend money except under the supervision of the Presbyteries. The Home Mission Board therefore decided in 1912 to withdraw support from the Independent Greek Church as such and to establish Presbyterian missions in Galician settlements. The ministers of the Independent Greek Church then made application to be received as ministers into the Presbyterian Church. The application was confirmed by the General Assembly at Toronto in 1913 and nineteen ministers were admitted.

The work among the Ruthenians in Alberta, as in other parts of Western Canada, has been adversely affected by the Great war and by the reflex influence of the Russian Revolution and the breakup of Austria-Hungary. "Many of these people," said Superintendent Simons in his report for 1918, "have become independent and sullen toward Canadian institutions." This feeling was augmented by a nationalist movement to combat assimilation. While the movement was not serious from a civic or political point of view, it embarrassed and retarded missionary progress among those who gave such promise when the Independent Greek Church was started some years before. Efforts were made by the Ruthenian Nationalist Party to organize a Ruthenian National Church. The new church was launched, January, 1919, adopting the creed and ritual of the Greek Orthodox Church. The result has been to spread confusion and scepticism among an excellent class of settlers who are naturally pious and peaceful. Notwithstanding, progress is being made by the establishment of school homes for the young people. Homes are in operation at Vermilion, Vegreville and Edmonton. In Edmonton the Presbyterian and Methodist Churches are coöperating on lines of social settlement work under Rev. W. H. Pike, of the Methodist Church, at several centres in the city. In 1922 a School Home was opened in Westminster Ladies' College (formerly Red Deer Ladies' College, opened in 1913 and moved to Edmonton), for high school and University Ukrainian girls who come to the capital for the advantages of secondary and higher education.

THE BAPTIST CHURCH.

Pioneer McDonald:—The Baptist Church celebrated the jubilee of its advent to Western Canada in June, 1923. Fifty years before Rev. Alexander McDonald, the pioneer Baptist missionary of Western Canada, arrived in Winnipeg. Spending the summer there he found that a Baptist Church was needed and returned to Ontario to raise funds to build the church. Next year he returned to Winnipeg, traveling over the Dawson Route. By November (1874) the church was built, and the first

Baptist Church of Winnipeg was organized three months later (February 7, 1875) with seven members.

Four years later there were four Baptist churches in Western Canada, with a membership of 162.

In 1883 Pioneer McDonald resigned his Winnipeg pastorate and became a missionary at large, spending some years in the United States. In 1893 he established the first Baptist Church in Edmonton, where he remained eight years before accepting the pastorate of Strathcona Baptist Church. After two years at Strathcona he went to Leduc in 1903, and built a church there, mortgaging his own house to do so. He died in 1911. To commemorate his name the Baptists of Edmonton built a church in 1907—McDonald Memorial Church.

General Organization:—In 1881 the "Red River Association of Baptist Churches" was formed. This name was changed the next year to the "Missionary Convention of Manitoba," which included seven churches. Two years later (1884) the name was changed again to "The Baptist Convention of Manitoba and North West Territories." In 1885 the Convention, representing thirteen churches and 650 members, met in Brandon, where the first church in that place had been just completed—Rev. J. H. Best, pastor.

The first Superintendent of Baptist Missions in the West was Rev. J. H. Best, appointed in 1887. From 1892 to 1897 Rev. H. G. Mellick was Superintendent, and in 1901 Rev. Dr. C. C. McLaurin was appointed General Missionary. Dr. McLaurin has been a great traveler in the cause of missions, covering an average of 20,000 miles a year, and has been responsible for the organization of 75 churches in the three prairie provinces.

For a number of years the Baptist Churches of British Columbia were united with those of the State of Washington, but in 1897 they formed a separate Convention for the Baptist Churches of the Pacific province. Early in 1906 negotiations were opened between the Convention of British Columbia and the Convention of Manitoba and North West Territories. At the annual meeting of the latter body, held in Edmonton, June, 1907, the Executive Board was empowered to effect a union with the Convention of British Columbia. The latter body took similar action at its annual meeting a few days later (July 9th). A basis of union was agreed upon, which was ratified by a Convention of delegates from all the Baptist churches in Western Canada held in Calgary, November 20th, of the same year. The new organization was called "The Baptist Convention of Western Canada." Rev. W. T. Stackhouse was elected first Superintendent. In 1909 at the annual meeting in Moose Jaw, the name of the general body was changed to "The Baptist Union of Western Canada." Changes were also made in the constitution to provide for provincial Conventions for each of the four Western Provinces, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta and British Columbia.

The Union was constituted a corporate body with supervision over

Home Missions, Foreign Missions, Education and Publications of the Baptist Church in Western Canada. Previous to the union in 1907 the Conventions each published a church paper. These were amalgamated under the name of "The Western Outlook" and changed later to "The Western Baptist."

The chief executive officer of the Union is the General Secretary. This office claims an outstanding man of the church and has invariably been filled by such a man. A list of the General Secretaries of the Union is a catalogue of brilliant leaders, endowed with the spirit of sacrifice and service that endears them to Baptists everywhere in the West and the Dominion of Canada:

W. T. Stackhouse, 1907-1909.

D. B. Harkness, 1910-1911.

J. F. McIntyre, 1912-1914.

C. R. Sayer, 1915-1918.

F. W. Patterson, 1919-1922.

L. M. Orchard, 1923.

For many years, up to 1907, the Mission Board of the Baptist Church in the West, had two departments of missions—English and Non-English. After the formation of the Baptist Union of Western Canada, all missions in the West were placed under a General Board with a Superintendent and an Assistant Superintendent. And in order to cope with the increased demands for Baptist services in all parts of the West, especially in Alberta and Saskatchewan, due to the heavy immigration of the period, a General Missionary was appointed for each of the Prairie Provinces. Rev. C. C. McLaurin, the General Missionary for the three Prairie Provinces, was appointed to Alberta, Rev. C. B. Freeman, to Saskatchewan and Rev. C. K. Morse to Manitoba. At the same time the new organization was strengthened by the appointment of a Home Mission Committee of twelve members in each Province. Missionary evangelists carried on the work among foreign settlers—Rev. Fred Palmborg among the Scandinavians, and Rev. Wm. Schunke among the Germans.

To facilitate the work among the non-English settlers of the West, who adhered to the Baptist Church, there were organized within the Western Union, the Northern Conference of German Baptists, the Canada Central Scandinavian Conference and the Russian-Ruthenian Conference. These organizations were related to the Union and the General Board in the same manner as the Provincial Conventions, and therefore enjoyed a good measure of autonomy. Arrangements were completed in 1910 for coöperation with the General Missionary Society of the German Baptist Churches of America and the German Conference in the West. Rev. F. H. Heineman, from Minnesota, was appointed assistant to the Superintendent of German Baptist Missions. The latter office, which was vacant owing to the resignation of Rev. Wm. Schunke, was filled by the appointment in 1911 of Rev. F. A. Bloedow, Secretary of the German Conference. In the same way

assistance was given to the Scandinavian Baptists by the Swedish General Conference of America, through the appointment of Rev. J. P. Sundstrom as Superintendent upon the resignation of Rev. F. Palmborg. Mr. Sundstrom remained in this capacity until 1922, when he was succeeded by Rev. J. Paul Erickson. To assist the Superintendents of Missions in the different Provinces, the time of whom was largely taken up with matters of organization and finance, two missionary evangelists were appointed by the General Board of the Union in 1909—Rev. F. W. Dafoe for Manitoba and Saskatchewan, Rev. J. W. Litch for Alberta and British Columbia.

A notable event in the history of the Baptist Churches of Western Canada was the visit of Rev. Dr. John Clifford, the greatest living Baptist of the time and the leader of the Nonconformists in Great Britain. Dr. Clifford attended the meetings of the different Conventions in the summer of 1911 at Winnipeg, Regina and Calgary.

In 1920 the General Board of the Union established a general endowment fund. Provision was made for placing in a capital fund bequests and gifts toward the missionary work of the Church and for using the income for the purposes of the respective donations. At the same time steps were taken to establish a Ministerial Superannuation Fund by the same method. Here it may be noted that the union received a grant of \$10,000 per year from Mr. John D. Rockefeller.

The relationship existing between the Northern German Conference and the Union was terminated in 1920. The German speaking churches decided to work independently and in affiliation with the Conference of German Speaking Churches of America instead of joining the Union on the same terms as the English Speaking Conferences or Conventions. Changes followed also at the same time in the Scandinavian Conference. This Conference was divided into a Swedish Department and a Norwegian Department. The administration of the Norwegian work was placed under a Committee appointed by the Union, consisting of two men from Western Canada, the Secretary of the Norwegian Conference of Baptist Churches in the United States, and the General Secretary of the Baptist Union. Rev. John Sempson was appointed General Missionary of the Norwegian Department, confining his labors chiefly to Alberta and Saskatchewan. The work among the Scandinavians was supported by the Swedish and Norwegian Conferences in the United States. The Swedish Conference in the United States made an annual grant of \$3,500 and the Norwegian Conference in the United States, a grant of \$1,200 annually.

Like the Presbyterian and the Methodist Churches, the Baptist Churches of Western Canada have shown great interest in promoting the evangelical movement that has manifested itself from time to time among the Russian and Ruthenian immigrants. In 1920 Rev. C. P. Cundy, a pastor specially trained for this work, was appointed and accepted the task. But the Baptist Church met with the same difficulties as the other churches engaged in fostering this movement. The growth of various

tendencies toward communism and socialism among many of the younger generation of these people has greatly retarded the evangelical movement.

New features of the organization of the Baptist Church in Alberta for effective work have been the appointment of General Secretary of Sunday Schools, Rev. P. H. Robert in 1921, and the establishment of a permanent Baptist Summer School for ministers and other church workers at Gull Lake, Alberta, the same year.

The Baptist Union of Western Canada has refused coöperation in the organic union movement now being consummated among the other Protestant Churches. The Union feels compelled through basic principles of its organization, its freedom from credal standards, its conception of the non-sacerdotal character of the New Testament Church, to hold aloof from the wider Union movement.

The history, organization and achievement of the Baptist Church in Western Canada would be incomplete without a reference to the work done by the Baptist Women's Missionary Society of Western Canada. The work began when the Women's Home Mission and Foreign Missionary Society of Manitoba and the North West Territories was organized in Winnipeg December 9, 1887. With the usual energy of women's organizations, it attacked many problems and adopted many causes. It was an ardent and useful supporter of the Baptist Missionary work among the Indians, the Scandinavians, Germans and Ruthenians, and specialized in giving assistance toward the building of churches on the prairies.

In November, 1907, the Baptist Women's Missionary Society of Western Canada was formed to conform with the Union then taking place between the Conventions of British Columbia and of the Prairie Provinces. At that time there were forty-seven Home Mission Circles in the North-West, this being the name of the local unit in each congregation that forms the basis of the Missionary Society. Its objects are home and foreign missions in coöperation with the Baptist Union of Western Canada. It supports missions in Bolivia and India.

The rapid growth of settlement rendered it necessary for the Society to organize Women's Missionary Societies in each Province or Convention, and in 1914 the Baptist Women's Missionary Society of Western Canada was changed to the Board of Women's Work of the Baptist Union of Western Canada.

First Congregations in Alberta:—The first Baptist Church in Alberta was organized in Calgary in May, 1888, with seven members. Two years later a church was built and opened (August 31, 1890). The total cost was \$2,069. The present First Baptist Church, built on a different site in 1912, cost \$152,131. The Baptist Church in Medicine Hat dates from 1890. In 1892 Rev. H. G. Mellick, Superintendent of Missions, held the first Baptist service in Edmonton. The next year, February 19, 1893, Rev. Alexander McDonald organized a congregation of nineteen members,

and that summer a brick church was built, the first brick church in Edmonton, and opened for public worship in November following.

Other early congregations were: Rabbit Hills (German), 1892; Didsbury 1893; Strathcona 1895; Leduc (German) 1895; Wetaskiwin (German) 1896; Josephburg (German) 1899; Battle River (Scandinavian) 1900; Burnt Lake (Scandinavian) 1901; Crooked Lake (Scandinavian) 1901; Lethbridge, 1905; Shiloh, Edmonton (colored) 1910.

Baptist Colleges in the West:—To supply the need of an institution of higher learning for the young men and women of the Baptist Church in the West, and to found a training college for the Baptist Ministry, Brandon College was established in 1899. Attempts had been made by zealous individuals before. Dr. Crawford, of Woodstock College, resigned his position there in 1880 to come West. His aim was to found a school to teach Arts and Theology. He established in Rapid City, Manitoba. For lack of adequate support, Prairie College, as the institution was called, was closed by the Manitoba Convention in 1883. The year before Professor S. J. McKee had opened an academy in Rapid City to give preparatory and collegiate training. This institution was later moved to Brandon, where it was carried on until 1899. In that year the Convention of Manitoba and the North-West decided to establish a Baptist College under its own control, and took over Prof. McKee's academy at Brandon, re-naming the institution Brandon College. Rev. Dr. A. P. McDiarmid, Secretary of the Baptist Board of Foreign Missions was appointed President of the College. It was opened October 2, 1899, with 110 students, thirteen of whom were enrolled as candidates for the ministry of the Baptist Church. The Legislative Assembly of Manitoba has refused to grant University powers to the college, which has led to affiliation with McMaster University, Toronto. In 1912 Dr. McDiarmid was succeeded by Rev. Dr. H. P. Whidden, who held the position until 1923, when Rev. Dr. Franklin P. Sweet became President.

Okanagan College, at Summerland, B. C., was opened under the control of the Baptist Union in October, 1907, Rev. Dr. E. W. Sawyer, principal, which position he held until 1914, and was succeeded by Rev. S. Everton. Owing to the conditions created by the war, the work of this institution has been suspended.

Steps were taken by the Baptist Union in 1913 to utilize a grant of land for educational purposes out of the estate of the late A. J. McArthur, M. L. A., of Calgary, and found a new Baptist College, to be known as McArthur College. Rev. D. R. Sharpe, B. D., was appointed principal. But before money could be subscribed for the success of the college the war intervened and nothing further has been done.

The year 1923 was the Jubilee year of the Baptist Church in Western Canada and the 35th year of its existence in Alberta. During that period 237 churches have been established, with a membership of 20,209, grouped into ten Conferences and Conventions. Growth in Alberta is shown by

comparing statistics of 1894 with those of 1923. In 1894 there were three churches, the total raised was \$9,285. The latest returns (December 31, 1922) show fifty-five English speaking congregations, with a membership of 4,179, and a budget of \$107,000, seven Swedish churches, one Norwegian and ten Russo-Ukranian churches.

MORAVIAN MISSIONS IN ALBERTA.

The members of the Moravian Church in Alberta are German Russians who began to emigrate from Volhynia about 1894. They were forced to leave their homes in that land because they could not get title to their lands unless they became members of the Greek Church. Their love of liberty and devotion to their faith clashed with the political plotting of the Russian Government and the bigotry of the State Church. They were forced to choose between degradation or emigration. They chose the latter and were induced by the Dominion Government to settle near Edmonton, around Bruederheim, and a few miles southeast of Edmonton on the vacant Indian Reserve of Papaschase. Soon after their arrival and settlement, they asked for the protection and services of the Moravian Church in the United States. That body, through its Provincial Elders' Conference, and Board of Extension, sent a representative, Rev. Morris W. Liebert, of Bethlehem, Pa., to inspect the field. He visited the two colonies in December, 1895. Acting upon his report the Elders' Conference and Board of Church Extension decided to support their Moravian brethren in Alberta, and to send them a pastor. Rev. Clement Hoyler accepted the appointment and took up his work among the Moravians of Alberta in February, 1896, assisted by Bro. Andrew Lilge.

Under Bishop Hoyler the work has grown with amazing success. In a material way these devoted people have prospered beyond their highest hopes that impelled them to emigrate to Alberta. They have maintained the time-honored reputation and character of the Moravian Church, which has throughout its history given more per head for missions and sent a larger proportion of its membership into foreign missions than any other church in Christendom.

There are now in the Canadian District ten congregations, nine churches, seven parsonages, 773 communicants and a total of 1,406 members. In 1920 they raised \$16,530 for their own work and \$4,680 for outside causes.

CHAPTER XVI.

SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION.

The principal State institutions of education in Alberta are the Public Schools, the Normal Schools, the Provincial University, the Schools of Agriculture and the Institute of Technology.

The first educational institutions of the Province of Alberta, as well as of the North West Territories, were the mission schools of the Roman Catholic Church and the various denominational schools of the Protestant Churches. For many years these schools, always situated in unorganized districts, were granted \$100 per quarter by the Territorial Government. The organization of the North West Territories gave an opportunity to the people to raise a demand for public schools. As pointed out before in these pages, there was a constitutional barrier that the North-West Council had no power to impose direct taxation except in electoral districts. Consequently, upon petition of the North-West Council, the Federal Government by Order-in-Council November 4, 1879, granted \$4,000 in aid of schools in the North West Territories. This money was distributed as follows: One-half the teacher's salary was paid in every school that had a minimum daily attendance of fifteen pupils, and the balance was given towards the erection of school buildings. According to the Lieutenant-Governor's report for 1884, there were seventeen Protestant and eleven Roman Catholic schools receiving aid in this way.

In 1884 the North-West Council passed the first School Ordinance of the North West Territories, and established the basic structure of our public school system. A bill to establish public and separate schools was introduced during the session of 1883 by Mr. Frank Oliver, of Edmonton, but did not reach its final stage before the prorogation of the Council. The Act of 1884 was drawn along the same lines as Mr. Oliver's Bill of 1883. It provided for the erection of a school district by proclamation of the Lieutenant-Governor upon receipt of returns showing that a majority of the qualified voters in any area of not more than thirty-six square miles voted in favor of establishing a school therein. Immediately there was a great increase in the number of schools, the Lieutenant-Governor's report for 1885 showing that there were forty-eight Protestant public schools, ten Roman Catholic schools and one Roman Catholic separate school in the North West Territories.

This Ordinance was repealed in 1885, and a new one passed providing for a Board of Education to administer the school law. The new Ordinance went into effect April 1, 1886. The Board of Education consisted of

two Protestant and two Roman Catholic members, presided over by the Lieutenant-Governor of the North West Territories. The first Board consisted of Hon. Edgar Dewdney, Chairman; Mr. John Secord and Mr. Charles Marshallsay, of the North-West Council, Protestant members, and Mr. Chas. B. Rouleau, stipendiary magistrate and ex-officio member of the North-West Council and Mr. A. E. Forget, Roman Catholic members. Mr. James Brown was the first Secretary and held the position for many years. Mr. Forget was succeeded a few months after his appointment by Rev. Father Albert Lacombe, O. M. I.

Regular meetings of the Board were held twice a year at Regina, the first being held March 11, 1886. Under this Ordinance there were actually two classes of schools, Protestant and Roman Catholic schools, with two classes of inspectors and two different sets of textbooks. In many districts the inspectors were clergymen of the various religious denominations. Within the boundaries of Alberta the following inspectors were appointed at the first meeting of the Board of Education: Rev. John McLean for the Protestant schools of Calgary and Macleod Districts; Mr. J. W. Costello for the Roman Catholic schools of Calgary and Macleod Districts; Rev. A. B. Baird for the Protestant schools of the Edmonton District and Rev. Father Lestanc for the Roman Catholic schools of the Edmonton District. Before the Board, as constituted under this Ordinance, was abolished in 1892, the following members served terms at different periods: The Right Rev. Cyprian Pinkham, Bishop of the Anglican diocese of Calgary; Hon. E. L. Wetmore of the Supreme Court of the North West Territories; Rev. A. B. Baird, Presbyterian Minister, Edmonton; Rev. John McLean, Methodist minister, Macleod; Rev. Father Leduc, O. M. I., Edmonton.

Among the inspectors were: Rev. Henry Grandin, O. M. I., afterwards Bishop of the Roman Catholic diocese of St. Albert; Rev. Charles McKillop, Presbyterian minister, Lethbridge; and Rev. D. G. McQueen, Presbyterian minister, Edmonton.

The new Board quickly addressed itself to the problems of higher education and training schools for teachers. In 1886 and 1887 requests were forwarded through the Lieutenant-Governor to the federal government for grants towards high schools and a central training school. The reply of the federal government was that it was undesirable to make such grants until the wants of the common schools were met. In 1889 the Board pressed upon the attention of the federal government the necessity for university land grants in each of the provisional districts of Alberta, Assiniboia and Saskatchewan, but nothing came of the suggestion. The difficulty in the way of establishing high schools and training schools was met by the organization of union schools; that is, where there were two or more adjacent schools with an aggregate daily attendance of 60 pupils, where not less than three teachers were employed, and where not less than 15 pupils from such schools had passed the High School Entrance Examina-



WESTMOUNT SCHOOL, EDMONTON



VICTORIA HIGH SCHOOL, EDMONTON

tion, the trustees were to furnish accommodation and apparatus for a high school course and the Board of Education might thereupon authorize the establishment of a Normal department. The principals of the union schools were assisted in the Normal teaching by the inspectors.

The first examination for teachers was held at various places in the Territories in January, 1887. Thirty-five candidates presented themselves, of whom twelve were granted certificates. The first Board of Examiners were Rev. F. W. Pedley, St. John's College, Qu'Appelle, and Rev. Father Hugonard, Industrial School, Qu'Appelle.

The Board of Education always kept before it the necessity of a University and in January, 1891, invited all the graduates residing in the North West Territories to meet at Regina to consider the advisability of organizing a University, drafting an Ordinance to give effect to the project.

In 1892 the Board of Education was replaced by the Council of Public Instruction, composed of the members of the Executive Committee of the Legislative Assembly with four appointed members, two Protestant and two Roman Catholic members to act in an advisory capacity only. The appointed members were: His Lordship the Bishop of Saskatchewan and Calgary; Rev. Father Caron, Regina; Mr. A. E. Forget, Regina; and Principal Smith of Moosomin.

In 1893 Dr. Goggin, formerly principal of Manitoba Normal School, was appointed Superintendent of Education for the North West Territories and principal of the new Normal school at Regina. Under the new superintendent the school system of the Territories rapidly expanded and improved, comparing favorably with the standards of the older Provinces of the Dominion. During the next ten years the number of schools increased from 262 to 917, and the number of pupils from 8,200 to 41,000.

More advanced legislation was embodied in the School Ordinance, the School Assessment Ordinance, and the School Grants Ordinance of 1901. The Council of Public Instruction was superseded by the Educational Council, presided over by a Commissioner, who was a member of the Executive Council, consisting of five persons, two of whom were to be Roman Catholics. The first Commissioner of Education was Hon. F. W. G. Haultain. The Council had control, subject to the legislature, of regulations respecting inspection of schools, training of teachers, licensing of teachers, courses of study, textbooks and similar matters. These Ordinances with amendments made thereto from time to time, prior and subsequent to the formation of the Province of Alberta, constitute the school law at the present time.

While the organization of school districts is, as a rule, taken upon the initiative of the residents of the districts, provision is made whereby the Minister of Education may, under certain conditions and on his own initiative, establish a school district. In this way, school facilities may be provided where required, even in the face of any indifference or open opposi-

tion which may exist with respect to school organization. The central authority may even go further, and in case of the failure of a district to elect trustees, or in the case of failure of the trustees so elected to provide for the operation of a school, as required by the School Act and Regulations, the Minister may appoint an official trustee who immediately assumes all the authority of a School Board and its officers, and carries on the affairs of the district under the direction of the Department of Education. Such a course, however, is almost unknown in practice, as the people of the Province, with rare exceptions, are most enthusiastic in support of the best educational facilities that can be procured. In support of this statement it may be stated that though the School Ordinances have always provided for a poll on debenture by-laws when demanded, over 99 per cent of the amount raised by debentures for school buildings have been authorized without the formality of a poll.

The schools are maintained by a revenue derived partly from a moderate self-imposed tax and partly by liberal legislative grants made from the School Lands Fund and from the Provincial revenues. The basis upon which grants are calculated are such as to encourage the engagement of the highest grade of teachers, to encourage the regularity of the attendance of pupils throughout the year, and to encourage the operation of our schools throughout the entire school year. Additional grants are based on the grading made by the inspectors with regard to school grounds, buildings, equipment and progress. At least half of this additional grant must be expended in the purchase of books for school libraries, such books to be selected from a catalogue authorized and furnished by the Department. As a result the nucleus of a school library may be found in the most remote rural school, and a very creditable library will be found in every school which has been some years in operation.

In the Alberta school system all grades, both primary and secondary, are included under the term "Public Schools." Thus the same Board of Trustees controls the primary and secondary schools. The course of studies is so formulated as to give the child whose education ends with the elementary school grades, an equipment for life as practical and complete as possible. It also provides, however, that those proceeding to the secondary grades do so almost unconsciously, the Public School Leaving being merely a promotion from Grade VIII—the highest grade in the primary schools—to Grade IX—the beginners' class in the secondary schools.

Attendance at the public school is compulsory upon all children of school age. Formerly the age limit in this respect was 14 years, but in 1918 the School Law was amended, raising the compulsory age limit to 15 years.

Under the existing school law there is a provision whereby the minority of the ratepayers in an established school district, whether Protestant or Roman Catholic, may establish a separate school, the boundaries of

which must coincide with the boundaries of the public school district within which it is established. The school operated by such minority is maintained by such assessments as they impose upon themselves, together with the legislative grant estimated on the same basis as in the case of the public schools. The regulations, however, provide for uniformity in the system of inspection of schools and examination, training and licensing of teachers. Separate schools in Alberta are not denominational schools. Provision was made in the North West Territories' Act of 1875 for separate schools. But, as pointed out in a previous chapter, these privileges enjoyed by the Roman Catholic minority were restricted by the Ordinances of the Legislative Assembly in 1892 and 1901 and every vestige of ecclesiasticism was eliminated from the school system of the North West Territories.

During the last few years there has grown up within the Province a strong popular demand for advancement in education. Such a demand or movement is one of the numerous results of the war, but it is also due to the increase of wealth and comfort among the people as well as the growing conviction that the progress and good government of the state depends upon an educated body of citizens. It is expressed in a rapid increase in the number of pupils in the secondary, or high schools, in new forms of organization of rural schools, in the extension of high school facilities to rural districts, and in the establishment of schools for vocational and higher technical instruction. The school program under the influence of the movement to make the education of the child a development of mind and body has been extended to include medical and health services by means of school and public health nurses, school clinics, night schools in rural districts, continuation classes, accelerated classes for unusually bright pupils, sub-normal classes for tardy pupils, and other special activities to supplement the fundamentals of a complete elementary education. These new activities have developed rapidly in the city schools of the Province, which have reached a high state of efficiency in Art, Manual Training, Music, Physical Training and Household Arts. The counterpart of this work in the country is the School Fair, which is doing much to inculcate an appreciation of the beauty, dignity and importance of rural life.

About 1912 the Department of Education of Alberta began to foster the organization of Consolidated Schools, and at the present time there are 69 Consolidated School Districts in the Province, which have included 219 original public school districts within their respective boundaries. New legislation in 1912 under the Secondary Consolidated School Act provided for the union of several rural public school districts for High School purposes only, no provision being made for the conveyance of pupils. Under this law special grants are made to these schools to assist in meeting the extra cost of operation. Since 1920 the Government has encouraged the erection of two-roomed schools in rural districts where the enrolment exceeds sixty pupils, giving a grant of \$3.00 per day for the senior room,

and if high school subjects are taught, \$3.50 per day, as well as the usual \$1.00 per day for the junior room.

One of the big problems of the Department of Education for the past years has been finding a supply of properly trained teachers for rural schools. In 1906 a Normal School was established at Calgary and a second in 1912 at Camrose. Notwithstanding such facilities it was impossible to find sufficient teachers to take charge of all the schools.

For the first ten years after the creation of the Province, the number of school districts increased from 716 to 2,478. Owing to favorable economic conditions incident to the rapid expansion in a new country, the ranks of the teaching profession were steadily depleted. During the war the shortage of teachers became gravely acute. A large percentage of the male teachers joined the Canadian Expeditionary Forces for service overseas, while many of the female teachers joined the Voluntary Aid Detachments and other auxiliary war services. The shortage approximated 1,600 teachers at the worst period. It became necessary to grant permits to University students and high school students of Grades XI and XII.

In the face of this shortage the Department of Education decided to extend the length of the Normal School Course from four months to eight months, and at the same time raised the minimum non-professional requirements for admission to the Normal Schools to Grade XI. Anticipating that the effect of such regulations would be to reduce the number of students entering the teachers' training schools, a survey was made of the High Schools to ascertain the number of students in these schools proceeding for teachers' certificates. The survey revealed a serious shortage of teachers in the immediate future. The Department therefore inaugurated a loan policy for students attending the Normal School, and thus succeeded in attracting a large number of young men and women to the teaching profession.

At the beginning of 1920 an emergency training course was opened at Edmonton to provide a supply of teachers during the transition period from the short to the long term. These emergency certificates were valid until January 1st, 1922. This emergency course developed into a complete normal course, making three institutions for the training of teachers in the Province. The swing of economic forces has reversed the conditions created by the war and by the period of rapid growth preceding that catastrophe and the problem of teacher supply ceases to concern the Department of Education any longer.

Since 1913 the teachers' training has been supplemented by Annual Summer Schools held at the University of Alberta during the summer holidays. These classes are not compulsory, but, notwithstanding this fact, the attendance increases each year.

Four types of certificates are issued in Alberta, namely: Professional, Interim, Temporary and Provisional. Certificates are also graded according to the academic standing of the teacher. These are as follows: Aca-



NORMAL SCHOOL, CALGARY

demic granted to persons who are graduates of recognized Universities; First Class to persons who hold Grade XII academic standing; Second Class to persons who hold Grade XI academic standing; training for Third Class certificates has not been given in Alberta for several years, but teachers coming to Alberta from elsewhere may be granted this standing until they qualify for the higher grades of certificate.

The Alberta Government recognized from the first the difficulty that non-English settlers had in establishing public schools and conforming to the law set forth in the school ordinance which makes it compulsory that all children of school age shall be sent to school and that all instruction shall be in the English language. In order to assist these people in overcoming the difficulty, the Government appointed a Supervisor of Foreign Schools. This officer organized the settlements into school districts, acted as official trustee where needed and in this capacity performed the duties of a Board of Trustees and its officers until the settlers understood the working of the school law.

For several years a school for teaching non-English settlers the English language, Canadian history, geography, and other subjects, was maintained at Vegreville. This institution, while it existed, was attended principally by young men above school age. In 1919 it was discontinued, and night classes for adults were established in centres where foreigners were settled. A special inspector was appointed to supervise the work of education among New Canadians, who co-operates with the district inspector, wherever such schools are situated.

In 1914 Dr. James C. Miller was appointed to make a survey of the Province to determine a general Provincial policy on technical education. The survey covered the Public and High Schools, training of teachers, prevocational classes, vocational classes, night school instruction and higher technical instruction. Towards the end of that year the University Commission reported in favor of utilizing the proposed University of Calgary for purposes of higher technical education, and called the new institution the Provincial Institute of Technology. Dr. Miller was appointed Provincial Director of Technical Education, but before any progress was made the serious nature of the war became apparent and the establishment of a system of technical education was retarded for some years.

The war, however, in Alberta as in all the other Provinces of Canada, stimulated a great interest in technical education. The Provincial Government aided the schools that provided technical training by giving them special grants varying from \$200 to \$1,500.

Mining schools were opened in 1916 in the large mining centres of the Province and operated under the direction of the Institute of Technology. Night schools were opened in the cities and in many of the towns. All these measures became necessary to maintain a trained labor supply due to the depletion of the man power of the Province on account of the war.

The Dominion Government, through the Technical Education Act of

1919, gave generous grants to all the Provinces of Canada for the promotion of industrial and technical education, under which Alberta received the sum of \$41,832 in 1920, and the sum of \$47,050 in 1921. Such grants were made on the condition that the Province would spend at least an equal amount for this purpose.

The result in Alberta has been a rapid and satisfactory growth in the field of vocational and technical education. At the end of June, 1921, there were 2,069 students receiving vocational instruction under the authority of local school boards in twenty-one cities and towns. Of this number 1,479 were students in the three cities, Edmonton, Calgary and Lethbridge, and 227 of the latter number were students in the Institute of Technology.

Special Agricultural Schools were established in 1913 at Olds, Claresholm and Vermilion, in connection with the Government Demonstration Farms at these points. They were established for training boys and girls for scientific farm work. The curriculum includes preparatory teaching for untrained young men and women to enable them to receive instruction in the subjects relating to agricultural science. The term is for two years. A diploma qualifies the holder to enter the University, to proceed to the Degree of Bachelor of Science and Agriculture. These schools became very popular and three more were established in 1920, namely, at Youngstown, Gleichen and Raymond. But owing to the financial depression of 1921 and 1922, these last-mentioned have been closed for the time being and until conditions improve.

The Schools of Agriculture are under the jurisdiction of the Minister of Agriculture, while all other schools and educational institutions are under the Minister of Education.

Notwithstanding the ample provision made by the Province for education, there are several private schools, mostly denominational. Two of these institutions—Westward Ho School for Boys, Edmonton, and Western Canada College, Calgary—are modelled after the English Public Schools. The remainder of the following list are maintained by the religious denominations interested:

- Mount Royal College, Calgary.
- St. Hilda's College, Calgary.
- Ambleside School, Calgary.
- St. Theresa's Academy, Medicine Hat.
- Raymond Academy, Raymond.
- Seventh Day Adventists Academy, Lacombe.
- Ruthenian Monastery, Mundare.
- Montessori School, Calgary.
- Mountain School, Banff.
- Youville Convent, St. Albert.
- Notre Dame Convent, Morinville.
- Canadian Junior College, Lacombe.

' WESTMINSTER LADIES' COLLEGE, EDMONTON.

Private though these schools are, the courses of study and general training given are closely watched by the Government of the Province through the Department of Education.

Mention has been made already of the attempt to establish a University for the North West Territories in 1891, and mention might be made of the Act passed by the Dominion Parliament in 1883, through the influence of Bishop McLean, to incorporate the University of Saskatchewan, but which was never carried out. In 1903 the Legislative Assembly passed an ordinance incorporating the University of the North West Territories. Owing to numerous applications from different denominational bodies to the Assembly of the North West Territories for the incorporation of Colleges with power to grant degrees, the Hon. F. W. G. Haultain introduced a bill that passed the Assembly, providing for the establishment of one University—the University of the North West Territories—to prevent the evils of sectional competition among educational institutions for power to grant University degrees.

Nothing was done, however, in effecting the organization of the University before the formation of Alberta and Saskatchewan into separate Provinces. But in the first session of the Legislative Assembly of Alberta, in 1906, Hon. A. C. Rutherford, Premier and Minister of Education, following the policy of Mr. Haultain, introduced a bill providing for the incorporation and establishment of the University of Alberta.

The Act became effective in 1907 by an amendment authorizing the Government to appoint a President and to proceed with the organization of the University. Dr. Henry Marshall Tory, of McGill University, assumed the duties of President on January 1st, 1908. Voting for the first Senate by the members of the Convocation on March 18th, 1908, and immediately the Government appointed its representatives to that body, as provided by the Act of incorporation. Hon. C. A. Stuart was elected Chancellor and the first Senate meeting was held on March 30th. A faculty of Arts and Sciences was established and the President authorized to engage four professors to prepare for opening classes in the following September. On September 23rd, the University commenced teaching in the rooms of one of the public schools in the then City of Strathcona, the place chosen by the Government of the Province in the previous year for the location of the University. The registration was forty-five students.

At the second session of the Legislature, 1910, the Legislation of 1906 was repealed, and a new University Act passed embodying important changes in the organization. The financial and administrative functions were separated from the academic functions, the former deputed to a Board of Governors, appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, and the latter to the Senate, which consists of ten members elected by convocation, and certain ex-officio members stipulated in the Act.

The first building, Athabaska Hall, on the University Campus, was completed in July, 1911, and here the fourth session of the University began. A new building, Assiniboia Hall, was completed in 1913. A third building, Pembina Hall, was completed in time for the opening in 1914. These buildings are now used as University residences.

The contract for the main teaching building, the Arts Building of the University, was let in December, 1913. It is a fine structure in the neo-classic style, and was completed in 1915. During the period of the war, building was suspended. But in 1919 building commenced again to keep pace with wonderful expansion of the work of the University and the popular demands made for its services. A Civil Engineering unit was added that year. In 1920 work was commenced and completed in the following year, on the Medical Building—a splendid structure in architectural harmony with the Arts Building close by.

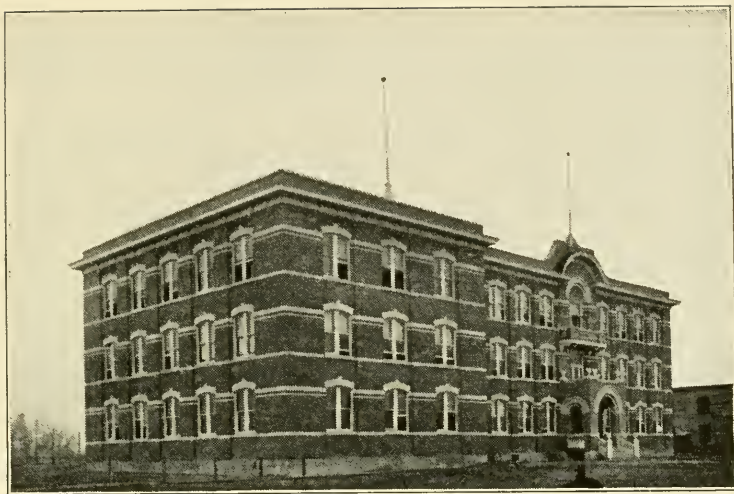
The Faculty of Law was established in 1912 and enlarged into a School of Law in 1922.

Civil Engineering was separated from the Faculty of Arts and Sciences in 1913, and constituted a separate faculty. In the same year the Faculty of Medicine was organized, providing for three years' training out of a course of five years, the fourth and fifth years to be completed at approved Universities in Eastern Canada. In 1922 the University acquired one of the Municipal Hospitals of the City of Edmonton, which by an agreement executed in 1913 between the City and the University, had been built on the University Grounds, and thus completed its equipment for giving a full course in Medicine. The course has been extended to six years.

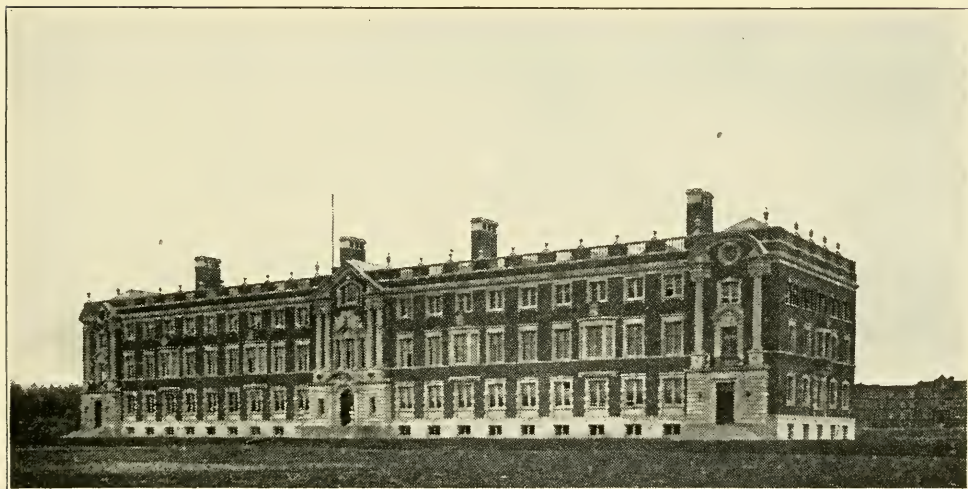
The Faculty of Agriculture was established in 1915. A large portion of the University Park was set aside for farm buildings and experimental plots. Land adjacent to the University Park has been acquired to meet the needs of this important department of the work of the University. This Faculty is more closely related to the fundamental industry of the Province than any other in the whole institution. Successful experiments have been carried on under Dean Howes and Professor Cutler for a number of years in developing new varieties of cereal grains, clovers and corn particularly adapted to the soil, climate and moisture conditions of Alberta.

A Faculty of Commerce, and a Faculty of Agricultural Engineering were established in 1921, and in the same year the Faculty of Law was enlarged to a School of Law.

Since 1912 the University has conducted an Extension Department which provides many of the benefits of the University for the people of the towns, villages and rural districts remote from the capital. This department provides lecturers, briefs on all kinds of useful subjects, supplies material for debating clubs and literary societies. Under its auspices, high school debating leagues have been organized in the principal



JESUIT COLLEGE, EDMONTON



ART BUILDING, UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA, EDMONTON

High Schools of the Provinces, which have stimulated a remarkable interest in the discussion of academic questions, current problems, in argumentation and public speaking.

In conformity with the general policy of the Provincial University of controlling degree conferring powers, provision has been made by the Act, through the Senate, for the affiliation of any institution or college established to promote the teaching of useful knowledge. Such institutions may present students for examinations leading to a degree in the University, and upon passing the same tests as are required by the University are entitled to a degree. On this basis the Medical Association, Dental Association, Architects' Association, Chartered Accountants' Association, Osteopathic Association, Alberta Law Society, and the Alberta Land Surveyors' Association have all been brought under the control of the University. Three of the principal religious denominations are affiliated with the University, namely: Alberta College South, the theological school of the Methodist Church in Alberta, in 1908; Robertson College, the theological college of the Presbyterian Church in Alberta, founded by the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in Canada, in 1910; St. Aidan's College, operating under the Synod of the Anglican Diocese of Edmonton, by resolution of the Senate, May 15th, 1919.

Under the regulations of the Senate several preparatory schools and colleges which send students up for the matriculation examinations of the University are affiliated with the University. At the present time the list includes:

Western Canada College, Calgary.

Alberta College, Edmonton.

Mount Royal College, Calgary.

Alberta College (North), Edmonton.

The University School, Calgary.

Llanarthey School for Girls, Edmonton.

The location of the University of Alberta at Strathcona (now united with Edmonton) led to a strong movement in the City of Calgary for the establishment of a University in that city. A petition on behalf of certain citizens of Calgary was presented to the Legislative Assembly of Alberta in 1910 praying for the incorporation of a University at Calgary. The charter proposed for the new University was in all essential features a copy of that granted to the Provincial University. In response to the petition the Assembly passed an Act incorporating the Calgary College, but withheld the power of granting degrees and the power to control examinations governing admission to the learned professions.

Application for University status was made on behalf of the Calgary College in 1911 and again in 1913. Decisive action was postponed until a report was prepared by the University Commission, which consisted of President Falconer of the University of Toronto, President Murray of the University of Saskatchewan, and President MacKenzie of Dalhousie Uni-

versity. The Commission made a careful study of the whole University problem in Alberta, and finally decided along the principles expressed by Haultain and Rutherford years before, but recommended the establishment of an Institute of Technology and Art for the City of Calgary, with power to grant certificates and diplomas in technological subjects, and that the Institute be supported and controlled jointly by the City of Calgary and the Province.

During the time that the agitation for a University in the City of Calgary was in progress, Calgary College was organized with a Board of Governors, Dr. T. H. Blow, Chairman, and W. T. Tregillus, Secretary. A small staff of instructors and lecturers were appointed, and over a quarter of a million was subscribed by wealthy citizens, and a gift of 575 acres of land was made, while the city corporation agreed to provide \$150,000 for a building. The war intervened and the college was abandoned.

Following out the recommendation of the University Commission, the Government of the Province proceeded with the organization of the Institute of Technology. During the war the building and staff of the Institute were loaned to the Federal Government for retraining ex-service men by the Soldiers' Civic Re-establishment Service. In October, 1920, the Institute was returned to the Province. Meanwhile a new and more suitable building had been in the course of construction. This building was completed in 1923, and Mr. W. G. Carpenter, Superintendent of Schools, Edmonton, was appointed first principal in November of the same year.

The growth of the University of Alberta has been one of the outstanding movements in the history of the Province. Commencing in 1908, as has been previously pointed out, with 45 students and four professors, the registration in 1914 had increased to 400 students, with 17 professors and 26 lecturers. Today the registration is over 1,300 students, and the teaching staff consists of 100 professors and lecturers. In numbers and influence it ranks as one of the foremost institutions of learning in the Dominion of Canada, and has gained a high reputation in the United States. It has been recognized by the Rockefeller Foundation as worthy to participate in the funds administered by the Foundation for the promotion of better medical training, to the amount of \$500,000.

The University has been generously supported by the people through the Legislative Assembly, and ably organized by President Tory. On its professorial staff are scientists of international repute. Dr. J. B. Collip, of the staff of the Medical Faculty, shares with Professor Macleod, Dr. Banting and Dr. Best, of the University of Toronto, the honor of participating in the Nobel Prize for Medicine in 1923, for the discovery of insulin—the first Canadians to win this preeminent distinction.

CHAPTER XVII.

TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION.

In this chapter it is purposed to deal with the subject as it affects the whole North-West. It is one that cannot be logically disjointed into geographical sections.

The history of transportation has been the history of the development of Western Canada. Every improvement in transportation has resulted in an improvement in the comfort of the people, and in an increase of wealth. The railway has been the greatest factor in developing the country. The country stagnated until the railway crossed the plains in the early eighties. Alberta was the last province of the plains to get the railway and was, therefore, the last to reap the benefits of the epoch-making change. If one reads the early newspapers of the province—The Edmonton Bulletin, the Macleod Gazette or the Lethbridge News—papers published before the railways came to Alberta, little difference will be found in the description of the life and occupations of the inhabitants from the conditions described by Henry and Harmon nearly a century ago.

The history of transportation in the North-West begins with the canoe and Indian travois—the dog travois and the horse travois—and progresses from one form to another until it evolves into the navigation of the air by the aeroplane.

It is a peculiar thing that the Indians never developed the rudiments of engineering science. As far as we have been able to find there is no record of the Indians of the plains ever having constructed a bridge or built a road on the prairies. Consequently when the first traders invaded the West, the only highways of travel were the rivers or the rude Indian trails.

In dealing with the subject it will be convenient to treat in the first place of the various means and methods of transportation and in the second place with the trade routes of the West from the earliest times. The first means of conveying the furs and peltries of the interior to the seaboard and carrying back the merchandise to exchange therefor was, of course, the canoe.

There were three kinds of canoes used in the fur trade in the commerce of Western Canada—the Montreal canoe, the North canoe and the Indian or express canoe. The Montreal canoes were used by the North West Company on the lakes as far as Fort William. They were

too large and cumbersome for the interior trade and too heavy to carry over the portages, requiring four men. They carried twice as large a cargo as the North canoe and were paddled by 14 to 16 voyageurs.

The North canoe was the ideal craft of the summer voyageur, the universal idol of its day. It was a light, graceful vessel of about 36 feet long and 50 inches to 6 feet broad, made of birch bark sewn with vegetable fibre and well gummed with the gum of the yellow pine. It was gaudily painted on bow and stern with those mythical figures which superstitious boatmen believed increased its speed. In this fairy-like craft the traveler sped swiftly over the bosom of the lake, or the long reaches of the river, the bright vermilion paddles gleaming in the sunlight, the forests echoing to the measure of some weird boat song or the chansons of the voyageurs. A light canoe crossed the continent from Montreal to the mouth of the Columbia River in 100 days. Loaded with fur, canoe brigades left Fort George on the Columbia about April 1st, and reached Fort William July 1st. Remaining there for twenty days, they were back at the mouth of the Columbia again on October 20th, with the outfits for the winter trade. Sir George Simpson in his famous progress through the posts of Rupert's Land and the Columbia, in 1822, traveled from York Factory to the mouth of the Fraser River in ninety days, sixteen of which were spent at the various posts of the company.

This was the first of Sir George's triumphal tours through the West. The people of the West have seen many distinguished excursions and entertained many visitors, but possibly no party that ever traveled through the country impressed the people of the day more than the Dictator of Rupert's Land did on this famous journey.

The capacity of the canoes varied. Those that conveyed David Harmon to the North-West in 1800 carried about two tons and were manned by six Canadians. However, the North canoe carried from 2,000 to 2,500 pounds, three passengers, eight or nine voyageurs and provisions for a month.

The Indian canoe was from 15 to 18 feet long, two and a half feet beam and would carry three men and provisions. It could be carried by one man. These canoes were used for rapid journeys by the officers of the fur companies or by special messengers and were called express canoes. Canoes dug out of poplar were frequently used by the Indians as well as by explorers and traders. Gabriel Franchère descended the Athabaska River in 1814 to Lac la Biche in a poplar dugout while others of his party had elks' skins stretched on wooden frames.

It is not known exactly when York boats were first used by the Hudson's Bay Company, but when Simpson became governor of Rupert's Land, in 1821, one of the first things he did was to investigate the methods of transportation. York boats were used in a limited way before this, however, for Alexander Henry says he saw them on the Saskatchewan River in the early years of the 19th century, that would be about 1805 or 1807.

At the meeting of the Council of Rupert's Land in 1823, it was decided to add York boats to the lines of travel. These boats effected the saving of one-half in the wages, and Simpson himself superintended the dispatch of a brigade of four boats from York Factory to the Athabaska by way of Nelson River. These boats were also called inland boats or Mackinaw boats. They were from 28 to 30 feet long. Manned by a steersman and eight men, they carried from 75 to 80 inland pieces, that is, packs of 90 lbs. each. Their size and capacity was regulated by the Council of Rupert's Land. We find in the minutes of 1836 that the Council ordered that York boats should be 28 ft. long at least and should have a minimum capacity of 80 pieces. The goods and furs were packed this way because of the numerous portages which compelled the voyageurs to unload, and reload at every portage on the route. The packing of goods was an art in itself in the old days of the fur trade. One man generally carried two packs and there was great rivalry among the crews to see who could carry their packs over the long portage without setting them down on the way.

After the union of the fur companies in 1821, Norway House became the chief distributing point for the North-West, or its chief base. It was to the West what Winnipeg is now—all traffic passed through this point to and from the whole interior. Goods were brought from England to York Factory in August and carefully packed into 90-pound bundles the following winter. In the spring they were conveyed by York boats to Norway House. Here they were stored in the warehouses until the following summer, when they were sent to the Athabaska and Mackenzie districts, via Portage la Loche, by the Red River brigade which also brought the farm and country produce of the Red River to Norway House. The brigade was met at Portage la Loche by the brigade from the north. The furs were carried over the 12-mile portage at this point, where they were loaded and conveyed by the Red River brigade to York Factory. The merchandise for the Mackenzie outfits was also carried over the portage to be loaded in the boats or canoes that brought the furs to the western end of the portage. Before 1831 the brigades of the Athabaska used to carry their furs and boats over Portage la Loche, going all the way down to York Factory and back again with outfits. It was considered a great step in advance when it was decided to keep boats and canoes at each end of the portage.

Norway House was the point where many of the York boats were built. Rocky Mountain House was another point where these boats were built, on account of the abundance of spruce forests. Some were also built at Edmonton, the headquarters of the Saskatchewan Brigade. In 1835 Chief Factor Rowand was ordered to supply 12 new boats. Usually 6 to 10 boats were built every year at Edmonton. Every year about the end of May the brigade left Edmonton with furs, pemmican, dried meat and leather for Cumberland House and Norway House, where these supplies with similar supplies from the Red River were distributed to the

northern and eastern posts not so favorably situated for a food supply. The brigade varied from year to year. In 1825, when Alexander Ross was returning from the Columbia, he went down to Norway House with the brigade from Edmonton. It consisted of 12 boats; but when Paul Kane went down in 1848, the brigade comprised 23 boats and 130 men. Sometimes the boats were taken down with half crews and full crews were obtained on the return journey by using the recruits that were brought out from the Old Country from year to year to serve at the various posts on the Upper Saskatchewan and the Columbia. The journey to York Factory and return occupied about four and a half months.

The minutes of the Council of Rupert's Land for 1833 contain special rules for loading. Seventy pieces was the smallest load; ten pieces were allowed for each commissioned gentleman; five pieces for first-class clerks; three for postmasters and junior clerks, and one-third of the above allowances to cover the freight of private orders for the same classes remaining inland.

At Norway House there was a chief transportation officer. He was a very important man and had a great task in regulating the Hudson's Bay time-table of the day. The movements of the brigades had to be so regulated that those starting from the points as far apart as Norway House on Lake Winnipeg and Fort McPherson on the Mackenzie, should meet within a day at Portage la Loche. When one considers the numerous portages (for example, there were 36 portages between Norway House and York Factory along the Hayes River) the unceasing toil and labor, the feat becomes a marvel of human endurance, pluck and organization. There was great punctuality in the dispatch of the canoes and the boat brigades. This was necessary because of the early close of navigation on the northern lakes and rivers. A delay of a few days at Red River might mean starvation on the Mackenzie the following winter. The arrival of the brigades could be calculated with as much certainty as the freight train of today, and possibly with greater precision. The anxious trader might ascend his lookout post with the certainty of seeing, sweeping around the nearest point, the well-laden boats with their swarthy crews bending low to their oars and gaily singing to the measured stroke.

But this was not the only problem the chief transportation officer encountered. He and his staff had difficulty always in getting the crews organized. The company needed 500 men for the boat brigades and 3,000 altogether for the trading season. The crews were generally half-breeds or Indians, careless, dissolute and irresponsible. The voyageurs generally lived such a hand to mouth existence that the Company advanced their wages in the winter and when spring came they generally rebelled against working the following summer for the balance. Strikes were of frequent occurrence, and sometimes were settled by a good drubbing given by the chief factor himself or some of the special men. In fact,

the difficulty of obtaining and controlling the crews was one of the causes that influenced the Company in adopting Red River carts.

The next step in the evolution of transportation was the Red River cart. This vehicle was an invention of the Nor'-westers. Henry mentions them when he was at Pembina in the early years of the last century. They were used by half-breeds in the great buffalo hunting trips. In 1820 Alexander Ross placed the number in the Red River at 540. In the June hunt of 1840 there were 1,210 carts gathered at Pembina from every nook and corner of the Red River. The advance of settlement in Manitoba began to attract trade to Fort Garry, which then began to grow at the expense of Norway House and York Factory. In 1850 the Hudson's Bay Company brought in their first goods by Red River carts from St. Paul.

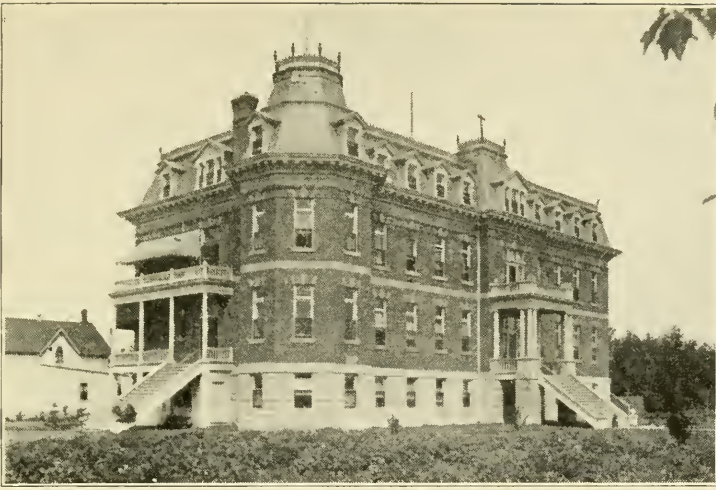
In 1856 a train of 500 carts left Winnipeg for St. Paul with wheat, tallow and beef, and brought back manufactured goods. The Hudson's Bay Company continued to send out its fur by Norway House and York Factory but the buffalo skins were sent out by carts to St. Paul. Fort Garry soon became the base for goods imported from the United States and Canada, and a separate warehouse was maintained outside the fort for Canadian and American goods. The trade grew rapidly, and it is estimated that the Hudson's Bay Company and petty traders operated at one time 1,500 carts between Winnipeg and St. Paul. The rate was 18s 5d per 100 pounds. Each cart carried from 900 to 1,200 pounds and was drawn by an ox or Indian pony. For each of these carts there was one man, and a number of spare horses were always taken along to relieve the tired animals from time to time. The number of carts in a train sometimes consisted of several hundred. In that case the train was divided into brigades of ten carts each. The daily progress was from 20 to 25 miles.

The first carts in Alberta were brought by Rev. Father Lacombe in 1862, with supplies for the mission at St. Albert. Five years later the Hudson's Bay Company brought in a train of 80 carts with goods for the posts and established a traffic which continued until steamboats began to operate on the Saskatchewan. In 1870 ten carts passed safely from Edmonton to Fort Benton with furs and brought back flour and whiskey. This was the first time it was ever deemed safe to pass through the country of the Blackfeet.

In 1859 steam navigation was inaugurated on the Red River. In June of that year the S. S. Anson Northrup steamed into Fort Garry from St. Peter's River, Minnesota. The success of this venture induced the Hudson's Bay Company to build the S. S. International in 1862. She was 150 feet long with 30 foot beam and drew two feet of water. She reached Winnipeg May 26, 1862. This steamer ran between Fort Garry and Georgetown, 200 miles farther up the river in the State of Minnesota. Messrs. Burbank & Company of St. Paul established a stage route between

St. Paul and Georgetown, so that a trip could be made from Montreal to Fort Garry in twelve days. The Sioux massacre, in 1862, caused river traffic to languish for a number of years—in fact, until the Northern Pacific reached Moorhead in 1872 from Duluth. The success of the International induced others, notably James J. Hill, N. W. Kitson, Donald A. Smith and James Ashdown to engage in the river transportation business. The steamers Selkirk, Manitoba and Minnesota soon became strong competitors with the Hudson's Bay steamer.

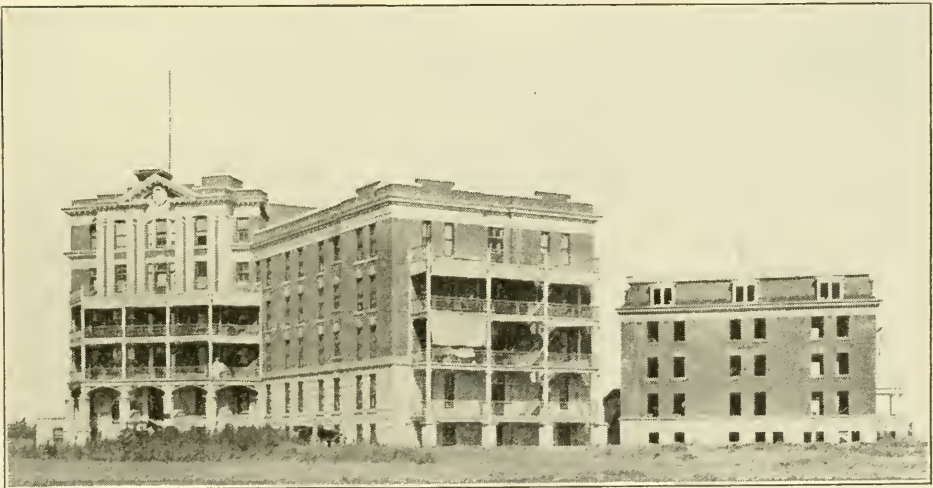
The S. S. Commissioner was the first steamer to ply on the Red River below Winnipeg and by 1883 there were 19 steamers operating on the Red and Assiniboine Rivers, on Lake Winnipeg and on the Saskatchewan River. The S. S. Colville plied between Winnipeg and Grand Rapids, making the round trip of 350 miles in five days. There were also eight freight steamers and seventeen barges on the Red River. Two steamers plied between Winnipeg, Brandon and Fort Ellice and at high water Fort Pelly was reached. The round trip of 700 miles to Pelly was scheduled to take 21 days. Six steamers operated on the Saskatchewan River from Grand Rapids to Blackfoot Crossing on the South Branch and to Edmonton on the North Branch. A short railway of five miles was built by the Hudson's Bay Company in the early seventies to portage the steamers from Lake Winnipeg to the navigable waters of the Saskatchewan above Grand Rapids. The principal steamers on the Saskatchewan were S. S. Northcote, S. S. Northwest, S. S. Marquis, S. S. Lily, S. S. Manitoba, S. S. Princess. The pioneer was the Northcote. She was on the Saskatchewan in 1871 and came as far as Edmonton for the first time in July, 1875, with supplies and mail for the detachment of the North West Mounted Police. The Lily was a steel hull brought to the Red River in parts from England by the Hudson's Bay Company and there put together. She operated on the South Branch as far as Medicine Hat. She was finally sunk below Saskatchewan Landing. Other steamers were the S. S. Alberta, S. S. Baroness and S. S. Minnow. These were small but powerful river boats owned by the Galt Coal Company of Lethbridge and carried coal from the Lethbridge mines down the Belly River and the Saskatchewan to Medicine Hat. The Baroness made a trip to Edmonton in the spring of the Rebellion of 1885. The Minnow was purchased by Lamoureux Bros. of Fort Saskatchewan and operated on the North Saskatchewan between Edmonton and Battleford. The first steamers on the Saskatchewan belonged to the Hudson's Bay Company, used to carry only the Company's merchandise to its various posts. After 1880 the Company opened the traffic to all traders and did a general transportation business, until the boats were taken over by the Winnipeg and Western Transportation Company. The Company spent considerable sums of money to improve navigation on the North Saskatchewan and was able to induce the Federal Government to supplement its expenditures in this



MISERICORDIA HOSPITAL, EDMONTON



GENERAL HOSPITAL, EDMONTON



ROYAL ALEXANDRA HOSPITAL, EDMONTON

respect. Up to 1884 over \$21,000.00 had been expended by the Government and the Hudson's Bay Company.

The Hudson's Bay Company was also the pioneer of steamboat transportation on the northern rivers, Athabaska, Peace, Slave and Mackenzie. The S. S. Grahame was built at Athabaska Landing in 1882 by Captain Smith. The S. S. Wrigley was built at Fort Smith in 1887. Other steamers, the S. S. Athabaska, S. S. Peace River, S. S. Slave River, S. S. Mackenzie River followed in due course, operating from Hudson's Hope on the Upper Peace River to Fond du Lac at the east end of Lake Athabaska, down the Mackenzie River to Fort McPherson and up the Liard River to Fort Nelson.

In 1908 the Northern Transportation Company entered the North and established a fleet of steamers, viz., S. S. Northland Echo, S. S. Northland Call, S. S. Northland Sun and S. S. Northland Star. These steamers operated on the Athabaska River and on Lesser Slave Lake. The Northern Sun plied between Grouard and Saulteau Landing to connect with the Northland Echo and the Northland Call. About 1910 the Alberta Arctic Transportation Company placed the S. S. D. A. Thomas and S. S. Distributor, and S. S. B. C. Express on the Peace, Athabaska and Slave rivers. The discovery of oil by the Imperial Oil Company in the summer of 1920 stimulated interest in the riches of the North and many new sailing, steam and gasoline boats were added to the river traffic to carry the machinery, supplies, merchandise and passengers bound for the new Eldorado.

It is interesting to note that the S. S. Grahame, during the first season it was operated, made a trip up the Clearwater carrying an excursion party of 150 Indians, comprising Dogribs, Slaves, Chipewyans and Eskimos. They were greatly impressed with the engineer and regarded him as a son of the Great Spirit. But it is questionable if these natives were more impressed on this occasion than were many of the people of Edmonton who witnessed on the 27th of July, 1920, four De Havillands fly out of the East from New York, which took no more actual flying time to make that long journey than it took a canoe to come from Fort Saskatchewan to Edmonton a century ago.

Historical reference to the subject of steamboat transportation in the North-West would be incomplete without allusion to the Dawson Route from Lake Superior to the Red River. As we have seen in the earlier chapters the first highway from Canada to the North-West was by the Old Canoe Route of the French Canadian explorers and fur traders, and the voyageurs of the North West Company. After the abandonment of the Canoe Route in 1821 there was no direct route from Canada. The North-West was reached indirectly from Canada via York Factory or through the United States via St. Paul and the Red River.

In 1867 Fort Garry became the port of entry and the Hudson's Bay Route speedily fell in importance. The people of older Canada were now

beginning to take an interest in the development of the West. They were familiar with the outcome of the investigation by the British parliamentary committee of 1857 and knew that it was but a few years until the Hudson's Bay Company would be forced to surrender its rights and powers in the West. Anticipating the future, the Canadian Government sent out two distinguished explorers—S. J. Dawson and Henry Youle Hind. These two men made an elaborate report on the resources of Western Canada which created a profound impression among the public men of the older parts of our Dominion. It was natural, therefore, that the Government of Canada should seek a highway on Canadian territory into the North-West. This desire led to the construction of the famous Dawson Route. The engineers of the Canadian Government recommended the use of boats on the water stretches, instead of canoes, as well as the construction of a wagon road from Thunder Bay to Lake Shebandowan and from Lake of the Woods to Fort Garry on the western end. A part of this road was constructed by the Wolseley expedition in 1870. Eventually this route opened for traffic and an emigration transportation service opened in 1871. The route was as follows: (a) By steamer to Fort William; (b) by wagon from Fort William to Shebandowan, 45 miles; (c) by open boat from Shebandowan to Lake of the Woods, 310 miles; (d) by wagon from Lake of the Woods to Fort Garry, 95 miles.

In 1872 steam launches superseded the open boats and later two snug steamers 100 and 120 feet long were placed on Rainy River and Lake of the Woods. This amphibious line was the precursor of the C. P. R. and continued in existence until 1876, when the contract respecting emigrant transportation was cancelled. Passengers and freight left Thunder Bay three times a week or daily if necessary. The time for the conveyance of passengers was not to exceed 10 or 12 days and for freight 15 to 20 days. Houses and tents were prepared along the way for the accommodation of the travellers. The fare from Thunder Bay to Fort Garry was \$10.00, general freight \$2.00 per 100 pounds, household furniture \$3.00 per hundred pounds. Needless to say, this route was never popular. There were too many portages.

Steamship transportation continued on the Red River and on the Saskatchewan until the advent of the railway. On December 3rd, 1878, the last spike was driven in the Pembina branch of the C. P. R. which connected with the St. Paul, Minneapolis and Manitoba at St. Vincent, Minnesota. This gave the North-West direct railway communication with the outside world for the first time.

The story of the construction of railway connection with the Red River is one of the greatest interest to Canadians. After years of high financing and gambling, certain American railway promoters became involved in an inextricable muddle in promoting the St. Paul and Pacific and the Northern Pacific. At this stage Donald A. Smith, George Ste-

phen, N. W. Kitson and James J. Hill came on the scene. They obtained the depreciated stock at prices varying from 11 to 70 cents per \$1.00 of the par value. The new company was organized under the name of the St. Paul, Minneapolis and Manitoba Railway. These four men by their splendid courage furnished a lesson in finance that the people of Canada may point to with pride for generations to come. It was the success of these men in this venture that enabled them to take up the Canadian Pacific Railway and give Canada its first transcontinental railway.

The contract of the C. P. R. was signed October 24, 1880, from Callendar on Lake Nipissing in Ontario, to Port Moody, in British Columbia. By 1883 the railway reached the Province of Alberta. As the head of the steel moved westward trading by carts was revived. The weekly issues of the Edmonton Bulletin in the early '80s regularly report the arrival of carts or sleighs from the head of steel, with goods for the Edmonton merchants and the Hudson's Bay Company.

The railway reached Calgary in September, 1883, and a stage line was established between that point and Edmonton. The Edmonton Bulletin of August 4, 1883, contained the announcement of the stage line, as follows: "Edmonton and Calgary stage, making weekly trips between said points, leaves Jasper House, Edmonton, at nine and the steamboat dock at 9:30 every Monday morning, stopping at Peace Hills, Battle River, Red Deer Crossing and Willow Creek and arriving at Calgary on Friday. Returning leaves Calgary Monday, stopping at same places, and arrives at Edmonton on Friday. Fare each way, \$25.00; 100 pounds baggage allowed; express matter 10 cents per pound. First stage leaves Edmonton on Monday, August 6th. Edmonton office in Jasper House. Calgary office in Hudson's Bay Company store. D. MacLeod, Proprietor."

In many respects this was one of the most interesting lines of transportation in the whole province. Many people are still living who were familiar with the celebrated stopping places at Chamberlain's, Scarlett's, The Lone Pine, Miller's at the Spruces 10 miles south of the Red Deer River, Blindman, Barnett's, Bear's Hill, Boggy Plain, Edmonton, where the traveller arrived on the fifth day from Calgary. It continued until the Calgary and Edmonton Railway reached Strathcona July 27, 1891.

The railway with its branches to Prince Albert and Edmonton, was the death blow to the steamboat traffic on the Saskatchewan River, although in 1886 the steamboats were still competing with the railroad in carrying freight to Edmonton and were giving a cheaper rate. It cost \$2.50 per hundred pounds to bring flour by the railway and stage route, while it cost only \$1.80 to bring it by steamboat. On general merchandise, the rate by rail and stage was \$4.50, compared with \$2.90 by steamboat. As late as 1896 the S. S. Northwest arrived at Edmonton with 1,000 sacks of flour.

Other means of transportation that should be briefly referred to are the dog sleigh or cariole, the pack train, the Indian travois, the bull train

and the Concord coach. The dog trains were used in winter to bring the fur from the outlying posts to the central depots, and also for the winter express. In the days of the North West Company this express generally left the Athabaska in December and reached Fort William or Sault Ste. Marie some time in March. In later years, during the supremacy of the Hudson's Bay Company, the winter express left Fort Garry, going by Norway House, Cumberland House, Fort a la Corne, and calling at the various posts until it reached the far-off Mackenzie. The dog in the North was and is to a great extent what the camel is in the desert. Dog sleigh was the fastest method in winter and the writings of early travellers contain many fascinating stories on this subject. A fine description of a trip by dog sleigh is found in Paul Kane's book, "The Wanderings of an Artist." It was the wedding trip of Miss Harriott, daughter of Chief Factor Harriott, and John Rowand in charge of Fort Pitt, son of the famous Chief Factor who ruled over Fort Edmonton so long. The trip was made down the river to Fort Pitt in three days in very stormy weather, Christmas, 1848. The party killed and consumed seventeen buffalo on the way down. Reference has been made in a former chapter to the journey of Chief Factor Christie in 1873 from Fort Simpson to Winnipeg to attend a meeting of the North West Council, by dog sleigh.

The dog is the oldest beast of burden on the plains. The Indians used him before the horse, as will be seen from their language. The Black-foot word for dog is "amita." The word for red deer is "Ponoko," the word for horse is "ponokamitan," which means "the red deer dog." The Sarcees derived a better name for the horse, for they called it "the seven dogs," that is, it was as big and strong as seven dogs. Henry saw 230 dog travois at Fort Vermilion in 1810.

Horses were used by the early travellers, such as Thompson, Henry and others, in making rapid journeys on their exploration trips. About the middle of the century there were a great many horses kept at Edmonton to outfit the pack trains to transport the goods to the mountains and thence to the Columbia department.

The open plains of Southern Alberta gave rise to a different method of transportation from that which was used in the northern and wooded parts of the province. This was the famous bull team method. It was introduced into Alberta by the American traders from Montana and extensively used by I. G. Baker & Company in conveying freight and supplies to the trading posts and to the posts of the North West Mounted Police south of the Bow River. This firm used wagons of very large size, called "Prairie Schooners." Three wagons were generally hitched together and carried from 10,000 to 15,000 pounds of freight. The first wagon carried 6,000 pounds, the second one 5,000 and the third one 3,000 pounds. The whole train was hauled by ten or twelve yoke of oxen. The wagons were neatly covered with a canvas tent and brought the goods to their destination in perfect condition. Sometimes these ox-trains

travelled in brigades of ten to a brigade and were generally accompanied by cooks and mess wagons. A brigade or more of these ox-trains was an impressive sight as it picked its slow and regular way over the prairie. By this means coal was hauled from the Galt mines at Lethbridge to Calgary by a sixteen-ox team. Only once did one of these trains try the trail between Calgary and Edmonton. It comprised nine teams, six yoke of oxen in each, hauling two wagons, each loaded with 7,000 pounds. The train reached Edmonton June 24, 1885, with supplies for the Alberta Field Force.

But to show that ambition and resourcefulness are still a quality of the men of Alberta, the reader's attention is directed to the case of Ralph Moorehouse, of Vulcan, Alberta, who, in December, 1922, loaded 1,444 bushels of wheat in eight tank wagons and hauled this immense load in one train twenty-two miles, by twenty horses and ten mules, the length over all (teams and wagons) being 245 feet. The load filled a car and is possibly the largest load ever drawn by horses or oxen in the history of the West.

Passenger traffic in Southern Alberta was carried on by the well known Concord coaches. The Mounted Police used buckboards and spring wagons.

Having dealt with the means of transportation, it remains to refer briefly to the routes of transportation and the main highways of the fur trade before the advent of the railway. Mention has been made of the Old Canoe Route via Fort William, Rainy River, Lake of the Woods and Winnipeg River, of the route by York Factory and Norway House and of the route via St. Paul down the Red River. All these routes finally led to the Saskatchewan River. Whether the traveller's journey was to the far-off Athabaska and the Mackenzie, to the foothills of Alberta or to the regions across the Rocky Mountains, a long lap of the journey was necessarily made on the lower Saskatchewan River. The route to the Athabaska branched from the Saskatchewan River at Cumberland House, up the Sturgeon-Weir River to a series of lakes known as Heron, Pelican and Woody lakes within a short distance of the Churchill River. Here there was a short portage called Frog Portage, which was long known as "The Doorway to the Great North." The Churchill River led to Ile á la Crosse Lake, Buffalo Lake and Lake la Loche. This brought the trader within a short distance of Clearwater River as we now know it, and at this point the voyageur found his heaviest portage. This was known in the fur trade as the Long Portage—Port La Loche, and is now marked on the maps as Methy Portage. After crossing this portage the voyageur cast his canoe into the Clearwater, the first river on his journey flowing west, which brought him into connection with the great waterway system of the North. This route was used for many years until the Hudson's Bay Company began using ox carts between Fort Carlton and Green Lake. At Green Lake the goods were transferred to boats or

canoes and thence down the Beaver River to Lake Ile á la Crosse where the new route joined the old route, via Cumberland House and Churchill River. As soon as the navigability of the Saskatchewan was demonstrated, the Hudson's Bay Company adopted another route to these northern posts. By this route steamers brought the goods up the Saskatchewan, past Carlton House to Frog Lake Creek, 180 miles west of Carlton. The goods were here transferred to ox carts and carried fifty miles overland to the Beaver River which, as we have noted above, flows into Lake Ile á la Crosse and so on by the Methy Portage to the waters of the North.

We have already seen the effect of the construction of the Canadian Pacific Railway on steamboat traffic and have to add that the construction of this railway caused another change in the route of transportation to the Hudson's Bay posts in the North. After 1883 the main highway to the North was from Edmonton overland to Athabaska Landing, by ox cart, wagon or other conveyance, where connection was made with the Hudson's Bay steamers and the Athabaska, Peace, and Mackenzie River systems.

Until the early sixties the North Saskatchewan was the highway to the British Columbia departments of the Hudson's Bay Company, though some of the goods for New Caledonia were sent over the mountains by the Peace River. In the early years of the 19th century the main line of travel lay up the Saskatchewan to Rocky Mountain House and thence to the Columbia River by Howse Pass. This route was used several times, as we have already seen, by David Thompson. The Howse Pass was soon abandoned for the Athabaska Pass. The point of departure from the Saskatchewan was Fort Edmonton, from where the trade route lay overland to Fort Assiniboine and up the Athabaska. Thus Edmonton became a point where there was a break in the line of transportation and consequently grew into an important trading centre. When trading vessels began to round Cape Horn the transcontinental trade of the Hudson's Bay Company up the Saskatchewan was destroyed and Edmonton lost its importance as a trading and distributing depot. To increase the destruction, American traders pushing up the Missouri to Fort Benton drew the powerful Blackfoot nation from the Hudson's Bay posts where they had traded for over half a century and the glory of the Saskatchewan was gone forever.

The story of transportation would be incomplete without reference to the old trails of the Indians and the traders. Many of the railway lines and trunk routes of to-day follow some of the old Indian trails. For example, the railway lines west of Edmonton to the Yellowhead Pass follow the old trail of the Mountain Stoneys. The road of the Canadian Northern Railway from Edmonton to Calgary follows the Blackfoot trail from the Great Plains to Edmonton and the Canadian Pacific, the Grand Trunk Pacific and the Canadian Northern main lines

from Edmonton to Winnipeg conform in a general way to the trails of the Plain Crees. After traversing this section of the West the railway lines running north of Edmonton follow some of the most important trails of the Wood Crees. A number of Indian trails constituted such desirable roads that provision was made in the North West Territories Act of 1875 to have them surveyed and maintained as permanent highways.

The use of the Red River carts opened up a number of important trails from Fort Garry westward to the Hudson's Bay posts and settlements on the upper Saskatchewan. The most important, and one of the most travelled of these overland highways ran from Fort Garry to Fort Ellice, passing the White Horse Plains, Portage la Prairie, crossing the Little Saskatchewan River and Bird Tail Creek. From Fort Ellice the trail ran northwestward through the Little and Big Touchwood hills, past Quill Lake and over Salt Plains to the South Saskatchewan, where crossings were made at different points but principally at Gabriels' and Clarke's Crossing. The next point on the trail was Fort Carlton on the North Saskatchewan. From this point it lay through the Thickwood Hills, past Jackfish Lake and Frenchman's Butte to Fort Pitt. From Fort Pitt it connected with Victoria and thence into Fort Edmonton. It was along this overland route that the first railway surveys were made with a view to building a transcontinental railway. Most of the old-timers in Northern Alberta came over this trail. It is now regarded as a true test of the old-timer that he was either born in Alberta previous to 1880 or entered the province by the old cart trail from Fort Garry via Carlton and Fort Pitt.

The work of surveying the old trails in the North West Territories was commenced in 1885 and completed in 1888. The most important in Alberta are as follows: (1) Calgary to Edmonton. (2) Calgary to Macleod. (3) Blackfoot Crossing to Fort Macleod. (4) Fort Walsh to Medicine Hat. (5) Blackfoot Crossing to Calgary. (6) Calgary to Morley north of the Bow River. (7) Calgary to Morley south of the Bow River. (8) The Bow River Trail along the Bow River bottom, near Calgary, from Dunbow at the mouth of High River to the northeast corner of section 35, township 23, range 1, west fifth meridian. By O. C. September 17, 1889, these trails were transferred by the Dominion Government to the Government of the North West Territories.

Railway extensions in Alberta soon followed the construction of the main line of the Canadian Pacific Railway. In 1885 the Alberta Railway & Coal Company, afterwards known as the Alberta Railway & Irrigation Company, built a line from Dunmore, on the main line of the Canadian Pacific Railway, to Lethbridge, 107 miles, receiving a grant therefor of 3,840 acres of land per mile. Five years later the road was extended to the International Boundary Line at Coutts, Montana, a distance of 65 miles, and shortly afterwards an extension was made by

this Company from Stirling to Cardston, 67 miles. In 1893 the Canadian Pacific Railway, in order to forestall the building of competitive branches of the Great Northern Railway into Southern Alberta, acquired by lease the road from Dunmore to Lethbridge, purchasing the same in 1897 and extended it westward through the Crow's Nest Pass to connect with the C. P. R. extensions in Southern British Columbia.

The railway from Calgary to Edmonton was completed to the south bank of the North Saskatchewan River, opposite Edmonton, on August 27, 1891, by the Calgary and Edmonton Railway Company. Next year the same Company built the railway southward to Macleod, reaching that point November 3, 1892. The Company received a land subsidy of 6,400 acres per mile for the mileage between Edmonton and Calgary. The road was immediately leased to the Canadian Pacific Railway, and has been operated by this Company since that time. For the next fifteen years there was little or no railway building in the Province, but when settlers began to come in large numbers, in the beginning of the century, railways were extended year by year.

In 1906 construction was commenced from Wetaskiwin, on the Calgary and Edmonton Railway, eastward to meet an extension from Llanigon westward. This line was completed in 1910, giving the Company a direct line from Edmonton to Winnipeg, and to Moose Jaw and St. Paul. A branch from Lacombe to Stettler was completed in 1906, and by 1914 was extended to Kerrobert, giving improved railway connections with Central and Northern Alberta. A cut-off from Calgary to Lethbridge was completed in 1911 via Aldersyde and Kipp, and an alternate line between Calgary and Swift Current was secured by the Bassano-Empress cut-off in 1914. A great steel bridge built over the North Saskatchewan River at Edmonton in 1913, gave access by the Company's line to Edmonton thirty years later than the old-timers of the place hoped to have witnessed this event.

Other branches were built as follows: Coronation to Lorraine, 19 miles, 1914; Suffield to Lomond, 84 miles, 1914. The charter of the Alberta Central Railway from Red Deer to Locheearn, 64 miles, was acquired in 1912, and construction completed.

The most important extensions in recent years by the Canadian Pacific Railway have been the acquisition by lease of the Edmonton, Dunvegan and British Columbia Railway from Edmonton to Grande Prairie, 400 miles, and of the Canada Central Railway from McLennan to Peace River, 48 miles, in 1920, and to Berwyn, 25 miles, in 1921. By the extension of these railways, 3,000 miles of lake and river navigation of the Peace and Mackenzie River valleys are linked up with three transcontinental railway systems. A second connection is secured by the Alberta and Great Waterways Railway, built by the Government of Alberta from Edmonton to Fort McMurray, 296 miles.

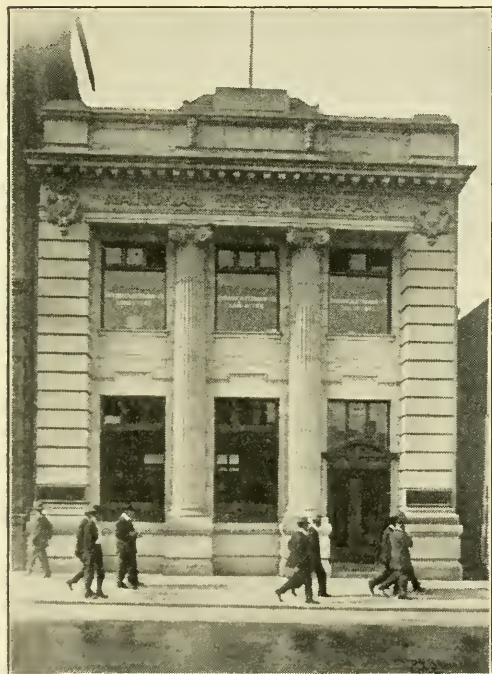
The rapid settlement of Western Canada attracted a competitor in



Merchants Bank of Canada



Bank of British North America



National Trust Company Building



Royal Bank of Canada

BANKS OF EDMONTON

the field of railway construction. This was the celebrated firm of railway contractors, Messrs. McKenzie & Mann. Welcomed by the people as deliverers from what they imagined to be a monopoly of the pioneer railway Company of the West, Messrs. McKenzie & Mann found little difficulty in building railroads by the system of Government guarantees, and organized the Canadian Northern Railway Company. In 1903 assistance was granted by the Dominion Parliament to the Canadian Northern Railway Company to extend the Company's line from Grandview, Manitoba, to Edmonton, a distance of 670 miles. The nature of this assistance was a guarantee of principal and interest of first mortgage bonds to the extent of \$13,000 per mile, the principal repayable in 50 years. The road was completed to Edmonton in November, 1905. Then Edmonton became a competitive shipping point with Calgary and began to acquire modern commercial importance.

By 1916 this road, which provided a third transcontinental railway for Canada, was completed to Vancouver via the Yellow Head Pass and the valley of the North Thompson River, thus giving Edmonton direct connection with Vancouver on the survey made by the C. P. R. in 1872.

Branch lines throughout the Province, with the assistance of Provincial guarantee of bonds soon followed: Edmonton to Athabaska, 1909; Tofield to Calgary, 1912; Calgary to Saskatoon, 1912; Edmonton to St. Paul, 1920; Camrose to Alliance, 1920.

Under an agreement, dated July 24, 1903, and ratified by the Parliament of Canada October 24 of the same year, the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway Company agreed with the Government of Canada to construct a railway from Winnipeg to the Pacific Coast, via Edmonton and the Yellow Head Pass, to be known as the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway. This road formed the Western Division of the second Canadian transcontinental railway, the termini of which were Moncton, N. B., and Prince Rupert, B. C. The Eastern Division from Winnipeg to Moncton was known as the National Transcontinental Railway, and was built by the Government of Canada. The Government of Canada guaranteed the principal and interest of three per cent first mortgage bonds of the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway, payable in 50 years at the rate of \$13,000 per mile on the Prairie Section of the Western Division—Winnipeg to Wolf Creek, a distance of 914 miles. On the Mountain Section of this Division—Wolf Creek to Prince Rupert, B. C.—the guarantee was for 75 per cent of the cost of construction. By September 13, 1909, the road was opened for traffic between Winnipeg and Edmonton, and to Wolf Creek, 118 miles west of Edmonton, in February, 1910. Four years later, April, 1914, the first through train from Winnipeg to Prince Rupert arrived at the latter point, thus completing the Western Division of the second transcontinental railway company of Canada.

Meanwhile a subsidiary company, the Grand Trunk Pacific Branch Lines Company, was organized to construct feeders to the main line in

Alberta. This Company, supported by guarantees of principal and interest from the Provincial Government, built a branch from Tofield to Calgary and from Bickerdike to the coal fields in the foothills between the Athabaska and North Saskatchewan rivers.

Between Edmonton and the Yellow Head Pass the Grand Trunk Pacific and the Canadian Northern Railway traversed the same territory, running in many places only a few yards or rods apart. After the default of both Companies in the payment of the interest guarantees in 1917, the two main lines and the branch lines of each were taken over by the Government of Canada and the two railway systems were consolidated into one system. Owing to the useless duplication of lines between Edmonton and the Yellow Head Pass and on account of the need of steel rails for war purposes, the rails were lifted from different sections of each roadbed and the remaining sections connected, making a single line of railway from Edmonton to the Rocky Mountains. Thus over \$8,000,000 of public money was wasted by the jealousy of railway corporations and the misguided benevolence of the Canadian Parliament.

TELEGRAPH LINES.

Telegraph service was established in Western Canada in 1871, when extensions from the State of Minnesota reached Fort Garry and communication of this form was opened with Ottawa for the first time. In 1874 the contract for the construction of a telegraph line was made for a line from Lake Superior to British Columbia. The route chosen lay along the proposed survey of the Canadian Pacific Railway. Construction was completed from Selkirk, Manitoba, to Edmonton via Humboldt and Battleford in 1878, and operated as far as Battleford. The line crossed the South Saskatchewan River at Clarke's Crossing from which point an extension was built to Prince Albert in 1883. Upon the abandonment of the first C. P. R. survey to the southern route across the prairies, the line to Edmonton branched off at Fort Qu'Appelle. West of Battleford the line ran westward via Hay Lakes to the trail between Calgary and Edmonton, thence to Edmonton. A new line was completed to Edmonton via Fort Pitt and Victoria north of the Saskatchewan River on August 14, 1887, and the old line via Strang and Leduc was abandoned. During the perilous days of the Rebellion of 1885, a line was built from Dunmore to Fort Macleod, and from Moose Jaw to Wood Mountain.

Short lines were built within the Province as follows: (a) Edmonton to St. Albert, 9 miles, 1889; (b) C. P. R. Hotel, Banff, to N. W. M. P. Barracks, $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles, 1889; (c) Edmonton to Beaumont, 15 miles, 1889; (d) Lethbridge to Cardston, 57 miles, 1894; (e) Edmonton to River Qui Barre, 1903; (f) Lloydminster to main line of Government telegraph line, 1904; (g) Edmonton to Spruce Grove and Stony Plain, 1904.

The shorter lines were operated as telephone lines.

The line from Edmonton to Athabaska, 96 miles, was built and put in operation October 1, 1904. It was extended to Peace River Crossing, October 6, 1910.

The first mail service to Alberta was established between Winnipeg and Edmonton in 1876. James McKay, Lord Southesks' famous guide, received the first contract, delivering the mail once every three weeks over the cart trail via Carlton and Fort Pitt. In October, 1880, this contract was taken over by J. W. McLean, known by all old-timers in the West as "Flat Boat McLean." As the Canadian Pacific Railway was extended westward the mail was carried by the railway mail service to the end of the steel where the contractor took it over for Alberta points. Today mail is carried to points in the far North by the same means as it was carried over the plains in those early days—dogs in winter, canoe or boat in summer.

Though the people of the Far North have not yet been reached by railway, telephone or telegraph, they are "on the air" and in touch with the outside world. Radio stations at Fort McMurray, Wabascaw, Fort Smith and other points down the Mackenzie Valley receive daily news broadcasted from C. J. C. A., the powerful broadcasting station of the Edmonton Journal, at Edmonton. Government surveyors, explorers, tourists, prospectors, Royal Canadian Mounted Police now take with them small receiving sets on their travels "down North."

Soon there will be a string of radio stations to the Arctic rim of the continent—to the mouth of the Mackenzie River, to Herschel Island and Coronation Gulf, and the loneliness of the cabin and igloo of these remote regions will be a thing of the past.

CHAPTER XVIII.

INITIATION AND GROWTH OF THE LIVE STOCK INDUSTRY IN ALBERTA.

CATTLE.

The disappearance of the buffalo at the end of the late seventies presented a serious problem to the government of Canada respecting the food supply of the Indians. From time immemorial the buffalo had been the principal sustenance of the aborigines. In 1879 the government imported 1,000 cattle from Montana for the purpose of distributing them among the Indians and creating a meat supply for these wards of the nation. The herd was placed in the Porcupine Hills west of Macleod, and though badly managed and depleted by thieves and wolves, proved that the cattle industry could be established in Alberta. The condition of the Indians was tersely put by Crowfoot, the great chief of the Blackfoot nation, in an interview with Indian Commissioner Dewdney at Blackfoot Crossing in 1879: "If you drive away the Sioux and make a hole so that the buffalo may come in, we will not trouble you for food; if you don't do that you must feed us or show us how to live."

As soon as the Indians were placed upon their reserves the country was open for the establishment of the cattle industry. A number of ranches quickly followed, such as the Cochrane, Bar U, Oxley, Circle, Waldron, Quorn—names that recall the glorious days of the Cattle Kings to the old-timers of southern Alberta. The land regulations were revised under the authority of Act of Parliament (44 Vic. Chap. 16) to provide for grazing leases at low rates for large areas of government lands. Leases did not exceed a period of twenty-one years and the largest single lease was restricted to not more than 100,000 acres. The rate was \$10.00 per 1,000 acres per year and the lessee was required to place at least one head of cattle for every ten acres embraced in the lease. By Order-in-Council September 17th, 1889, the rate was raised to \$20.00 per 1,000 acres and the number of cattle reduced to one head for every twenty acres.

In 1881 Dr. McEachren, the veterinary inspector of live stock for Canada, reported that over 30,000 Montana cattle had been imported into Alberta and placed on the ranges in the Bow River valley and the Macleod district. The first general round-up was held in 1881 with W. F. Parker of Macleod as captain. By 1884 the ranching industry was fully established in Southern Alberta, located mostly in the foothill country south

of Calgary. Forty-one companies were engaged in the business holding under lease an area of 2,782,000 acres. The North-West Cattle Association petitioned the government to prohibit sheep from running on the cattle ranges. Accordingly an Order-in-Council was passed in October, 1884, defining the territory allotted exclusively to the cattlemen. The area was defined as follows: "On the South by the International boundary, on the west by the summit of the Rocky Mountains, on the north by the High River and its north fork to the Bow River, thence along the Bow River to the Eastern boundary of the provisional district of Alberta, and on the east by the said eastern boundary."

Grazing leases contained a provision that the even numbered sections were open for homesteading. This condition engendered considerable friction between the big ranchers and the homesteader. Many homesteaders on the pretence, it was alleged, of becoming agricultural settlers picked the choicest parts of the ranchers' leaseholds, and without paying rent went into competition with the leaseholder at the latter's expense. To obviate this difficulty a distinction was made between homestead settlers and ordinary lessees, by Order-in-Council April 7, 1887. By the new regulations homestead settlers were permitted to acquire upon application, leaseholds up to 2,500 acres, while ordinary lessees were compelled to obtain their leaseholds by public competition. The system of leasing with restrictions as to the number of cattle to be maintained was adopted in Alberta instead of the Montana system of paying a rental per head in order to prevent overstocking which would have led to the early destruction of the prairie grasses on the range, as had been the experience of ranchmen in the Western States. Regulations were enforced setting apart certain areas suitable as watering places for the common use of all ranchmen. These were reserved from settlement, as the procuring of water was essential to the continuance of the stock industry, and ranchmen were slow to sink wells.

In 1886 the officers of the Department of the Interior estimated that there were 104,000 cattle on the leased lands of Alberta, besides 11,000 more owned by non-leaseholders. There was in addition, a large number owned by homesteaders not included in this estimate.

Previous to September 1, 1886, there had been no tariff restrictions on cattle imported into the North West Territory provided they were for stocking the ranges and not sold until the end of a period of three years, and the proportion of one head per ten acres was not exceeded. On the above date the government of Canada imposed a duty of 20 per cent. This regulation prevented wholesale importation or driving from the regions south of the International boundary line where protracted droughts had dried up the ranges.

The winter of 1886 was the hardest that the cattlemen of Alberta had up to that date experienced. For weeks the snow was two feet deep on the plains and great numbers, particularly among the "pilgrim" cattle

died. The losses were estimated by the owners and officers of the North West Mounted Police at fifteen per cent. These disasters taught cattlemen the importance of providing a store of winter fodder for emergencies of this nature and not to leave their herds to the luck of the weather. The most advanced cowmen began yarding their calves in the fall and feeding them during the winter. The number of cattle on the ranges in the summer of 1887 was placed at 101,382.

The regulations introduced by the Order-in-Council of 1887 differentiating between homesteaders' leases and large grazing leases, began to affect the large leaseholders. From 1888 onwards, the area under lease for grazing purposes steadily decreased, but on the other hand the number of ranchers engaged in the cattle industry increased, as did the total number of cattle on the ranges. The day of the great rancher with his 100,000 acre ranch was ended.

Owing to the demand for lands in Western Alberta for settlement, and to satisfy the land subsidies granted by Parliament to railway companies, it became necessary to change the regulations respecting grazing leases. This was done by Order-in-Council dated October 12th, 1892, authorizing the notification of all persons who held leases upon the form which did not provide for the withdrawal of lands for homestead or railway purposes, that their leases would be terminated after the 31st of December, 1896; that they would be permitted to purchase up to ten per cent of their leaseholds at \$2.00 per acre (this was reduced to \$1.25 per acre by Order-in-Council April 22, 1893) and that after December 31st, 1896, it would be open to them to accept leases for the unexpired portion of the twenty-one years of such lands as was agreed upon with the government upon the terms of a lease that provided for the withdrawal of such lands for homestead or railway purposes.

When these restrictions went into effect there was a sudden decrease in the area under grazing leases. It fell from 1,579,285 acres occupied by 159 lessees in 1893 to 248,984 acres occupied by 375 lessees in 1897. As a rule the lessees were settlers who rented limited areas in the neighborhood of their homesteads. From that date the area steadily increased, due to the extensive settlement that followed. In 1910 the area under lease in Western Canada was 3,293,539 acres of which 2,023,169 acres was in Alberta. The winter of 1896-97 was a very severe season, in fact the hardest since the terrible year of 1886, but owing to the better care that experience had taught the cowmen, the losses were not nearly so heavy as on the former occasion. It is interesting to note that ten years later in 1906-07 the winter was a most severe one and caused considerable loss.

Though conditions surrounding the cattle trade of Alberta were very favourable, even from the beginning the quality of the cattle as a whole gradually deteriorated. Breeders without experience or capital engaged in the business, crossbred bulls became common, and carelessness in breeding methods lowered the natural increase. The wholesale purchase of

stockers from Manitoba and the eastern provinces introduced many inferior animals, and when these sources of importation failed stockmen began importing Mexican cattle. The climax of this deterioration was reached about 1902. "These degenerate descendants" says Dr. J. G. Ruthford, "of the ancient Spanish breed, although hardy and exceeding in length of horn, as in length of wind and speed anything ever before seen among our western cattle, did not recommend themselves to the Canadian rancher and after a few years the trade died out in 1905."

Health.—As a rule the Alberta cattle do not suffer from diseases. This is in a large measure due to the careful supervision by the Dominion Department of Agriculture from the earliest days of the industry. In view of the fact that many of the cattle in the early days came from the Western States where the ranges were stocked from the Eastern States the Government adopted a rigid policy of veterinary inspection and quarantine in 1884, (Order-in-Council Sept. 8, 1884.) This Order was made more restrictive in 1887 when the Canadian Pacific Railway was completed across the prairie. The period of quarantine was raised from sixty to ninety days. A reserve of two townships along the international frontier as far as the Rocky Mountains was constituted a quarantine grazing ground, and a quarantine station set apart south of the Milk River, Order-in-Council May 12, 1888. By Order-in-Council Sept. 17, 1892, three well marked and naturally bounded quarantine stations were established in place of the indefinite strip of two townships along the frontier. These were definitely outlined as follows:

- | | |
|---|-------------------|
| 1. Township 1, Ranges 19, 20, 21, 22, W 4th | |
| 2. Township 1, Ranges 12, 13, 14, 15, W 4th | } West Milk River |
| Township 2, Ranges 13, 14, 15, W 4th | |
| 3. Township 1, Ranges 4, 5, 6, W 4th | } East Milk River |
| Township 2, Ranges 4, 5, 6, W 4th | |

No cattle were permitted to be entered between Sept. 30th and March 31st of the following year in any year. This regulation was changed in 1894 respecting the location of the quarantine stations in order to secure better water supply and to give the North West Mounted Police better opportunities of supervising quarantine. The new reservation was defined: "All that triangular tract of country bounded on the west by the main stream of Willow Creek, on the east by the north fork of the same creek and on the north by a small coulee or creek emptying into the said North Fork." (Order-in-Council May 9, 1894.) The quarantine areas were provided with corrals and sheds.

In 1899 mange appeared in some of the herds in the Little Bow and Lethbridge districts though it had been noticed before. Dipping or dressing was ordered (Order-in-Council July 14, 1899). Stockmen most interested erected a dipping station at Rocky Coulee, eight miles southeast of Macleod under the supervision of Veterinary Inspector



BANFF, ALBERTA

Wroughton, F. Cochrane and Howell Harris. Six thousand eight hundred sixty cattle were dipped that season at this point. The disease spread over the entire southern part of Alberta, as far east as Maple Creek and north to the Red Deer. Dipping chutes were erected the next year at Pincher Creek, Lethbridge, High River, Medicine Hat and Willow Creek. By 1902 mange was pretty well eradicated except along the Red Deer River where 75 per cent were reported infected. Again in 1905 the Veterinary Director General reported that more cattle were affected with mange than ever before. Stricter measures relating to dipping and importation were enforced especially with cattle coming from Mexico, by the federal Department of Agriculture and the Western Stock Growers' Association, a fact that greatly discouraged the importation of Mexican steers. The Orders-in-Council of June 27th, 1904, and July 10th, 1905, defined the mange district and rules for the movement and shipment of cattle. The infected area was divided into fourteen districts, each placed in charge of a veterinary inspector. In case of small herds hand treatment with a specified preparation was authorized, but all large herds were required to be dipped twice in lime and sulphur dip. This necessitated the construction of large vats and of these 194 were constructed and ready for use in September 1904. During the year 547,705 cattle were dipped once and 422,805 a second time. The result was highly beneficial, and the infected area became so free from the disease that the Western Stock Growers' Association declared in 1906 that compulsory dipping was no longer necessary. The severe winter of 1906-7 led to drifting for great distances and as a result the diseased herds mixed with the healthy ones and the disease spread with extraordinary rapidity. Compulsory dipping was resorted to again in 1907, and 382,921 cattle were treated. By this treatment many districts were freed from mange. Since that year general compulsory dipping has not been ordered. A system of close inspection and quarantine has been adopted instead, and though the disease may still exist in some districts it is under control.

Cattle Stealing:—From the beginning of the cattle industry stealing was one of the annoying incidents of the business. The first form of this crime was running Canadian cattle over the border into Montana, but as the number increased on the ranges and a greater variety of brands were used the thieves adopted the obvious device of altering the brands on the old cattle and branding the calves with their own brand. These practices led the stockowners to form stock associations for common protection.

Stringent laws were passed by the Territorial legislature regulating driving of stock (C. O. 1888 C. 17). Marking of stock, (1878, C. 12: 1884 C. 14: 1887, C. 10: 1897 C. 23: 1898 C. 76) and Inspection of Stock (1899 C. 19). Rules respecting disposal of hides and marking of stock were also adopted by the associations under the authority of the legislature.

Purchasers of hides were compelled to keep a record of all hides of neat cattle, and every butcher was compelled to do the same. Notwithstanding these measures and the vigilance of the Mounted Police cattle stealing increased. More detailed inspection was required. The Western Stock Growers' Association was organized under legislative authority in 1896. A better supervision was thus exercised over the industry by those conducting it. The southern part of the province was divided into the following stock districts each governed by district associations:—Bow River, Medicine Hat, Lethbridge, Sheep Creek, High River, Willow Creek and Pincher Creek. The Association had power to make by-laws relating to round-ups, suspension and expulsion of members. In 1899 the stock inspection ordinance was passed compelling inspection by official inspectors of all stock before being loaded for shipment. By this means shippers were compelled to produce title to the cattle in their possession.

For many years the Western Stock Growers' Association kept an expert brand reader at Winnipeg to detect illegal shipments and sales of range cattle belonging to members of the Association. At the present time the Provincial Government has brand readers and stock inspectors at the principal stockyards in the province. The railways are forbidden to accept cattle out of the yards unless they have been inspected by the Government inspector.

Another source of annoyance to cattlemen, especially those near the International line, was the difficulty of keeping American cattle from drifting on to the Alberta ranges. In addition to Mounted Police patrols, the ranchmen kept line riders to drive American cattle back.

Markets and Prices:—To the rancher of experience and who exercises judgment the cattle industry in Alberta has always been a financial success. The supplies required for the Indian reservations and for railway construction camps in the eighties provided a market from the first. The grass-fed steer was a new article of diet even for the western men who hitherto had been used to eat the cast-off bull teams of the ox-cart trains. In 1884 the Northwest Cattle Company sold 800 steers at \$65.00.

Export to Great Britain began in 1887 via Montreal. After paying all expenses the ranchmen realized \$45.00 per head. Next year 5,000 were shipped from the Calgary district. Properly selected and finished animals realized from \$40.00 to \$50.00 profit, but underbred and unfinished cattle were a loss to the shippers.

The beginnings of the British Columbia trade date from 1890. In 1892 prices fell from \$50 to \$35 per head for steers. Shipments to England continued to grow, 6,500 being shipped in 1893. Next year more cattle were shipped to England than in any previous year. Prices varied from \$40 for four-year-olds to \$35 for three-year-olds and heifers. The output of the ranges in 1895 was reckoned by the North West Mounted Police at 25,000 fat cattle, most of which were purchased by Gordon & Ironsides,

Winnipeg. 7,000 stockers were imported from Ontario. 50,000 cattle were shipped over the Canadian Pacific Railway from the North West Territories in 1896, 18,000 of which went to Great Britain and 2,000 to British Columbia. 12,600 of these came from Alberta. The development of the mining industry in Southern British Columbia and the extension of the Crowsnest Pass Railway into this region opened up a lucrative trade in butcher cattle which could not qualify for the eastern export market. One firm was killing about 400 per month for the Kootenay trade. Prices ranged as follows: 4-year-old steers, \$40 to \$42.50; 3-year-old steers, \$35 to \$37.50; fat cows and other classes, \$27 to \$32.00. 16,000 stockers were shipped this year. By 1898 the exports of fat cattle from Manitoba and the North West Territories fell to 40,000. Of this number about 7,000 went to the United States. Beginning with 1898 the supply of stockers fell short of the demand. The removal of the quarantine regulations in 1897 opened a new market for this class in the United States, not only from Manitoba and Ontario where the ranchers had formerly obtained their supply of stockers but from the Territories as well. The exports of cattle from Canada to the United States suddenly rose from 1,930 in 1896 to 92,864 in 1899. Of this number 35,000 were shipped from Manitoba and the Territories.

Notwithstanding, the exports of fat cattle increased. In 1898 Gordon & Ironsides shipped over 26,900 cattle, 12,000 of which came from the Alberta ranges. The Canadian Pacific Railway handled 43,000, over ten per cent of which went to British Columbia. The shipments of fat cattle in 1899 aggregated 31,938, of which 20,000 were from the Alberta ranges. The total exports including stockers were 67,000, compared with 59,000 the year before. The export of stockers fell rapidly after 1900, and in 1901, 20,000 were brought in from Manitoba and Ontario. The export shipments in 1901 showed a marked decrease under those of 1900, due to the wet, late summer preventing the proper fattening of the animals. The exports eastward tabulated by the Canadian Pacific Railway were 31,456 compared with 43,863 the previous year.

Since 1900 there has been no effort made to replenish the large herds of earlier days. The result has been brought about by the settlement of land formerly used for ranching purposes, consequent upon the discovery of its suitability for growing wheat. Another cause has been the disinclination of the Federal Government to grant long term leases, preferring to open the land for the homesteaders. Large ranchers sold off their herds, while others moved north and eastward of the Red Deer River. This area in turn developed rapidly, and the rancher was again driven out by the homesteader. The practice of marketing calves and spaying heifers further diminished the numbers of the herds to accommodate the limited areas open for range purposes.

On account of repeated expressions of discontent on the part of the farmers of the province respecting the conditions surrounding the sale and

shipment of live stock, the provincial government appointed the Beef Commission in 1907, and the Pork Commission in 1908.

The Beef Commission found that about fifty per cent of the cattle raised were exported. These comprised "toppers" weighing from 1,200 lbs and upwards, smooth and well finished. The discontent arose over the disposal of the remaining fifty per cent which comprised butchers' stock and small animals, tough and unfinished. It was found that this portion of the beef crop was sufficient to glut the domestic market, and the Commission advised that farmers and ranchers should make a greater effort to produce export cattle. In view of the changing conditions of the cattle industry due to rapid settlement the Commission strongly urged winter feeding. A number of enterprising owners had experimented along these lines but found that range cattle did not thrive well under the conditions incident to close housing. Housing in open sheds convenient to good pasturage was recommended. In this way wild range animals gradually would become quiet, a condition necessary to successful shipping.

The exporters urged better selection of pure bred sires and better feeding, and many prominent witnesses before the Commission recommended the establishment of a cannery for "rough and thin animals, and those which have served their day in the dairy herd."

With respect to the retail trade the Commission found that the profits of the local butchers ranged all the way from ten per cent to one hundred per cent according to the volume of business, and the methods used. The whole retail trade was said to be in control of one Company, the president of which said that if he were to close down for ten days the people would be starving. The Commission found that almost without exception the small shipper exported at a loss. "It would appear," runs the report, "that the transportation companies, commission merchants and all corporations interested in shipping endeavour to discourage the small shipper." The chief difficulties lay in delays in transit, and delays in supplying cars. To effect a remedy the Commission recommended the appointment of a Live Stock Commissioner by the Provincial Government. This officer was appointed and live stock men soon reported considerable improvement in shipping. In 1910 the cattlemen of Alberta and the other prairie provinces working through the provincial departments of agriculture, the various live stock and breeders' associations, the Western Live Stock Union and United Farmers of Alberta opened negotiations with the railway companies to obtain satisfactory regulations for shipping live stock. After several tedious conferences an agreement was arrived at in 1913 which was sanctioned by the Board of Railway Commissioners of Canada. Shipping regulations, owing to the changing conditions of the live stock industry in the West, high freight rates and other circumstances, have never been regarded as just by the cattlemen and applications are being constantly made to the Railway Board.

The chilled meat trade was discussed by several of the witnesses

before the Beef Commission. The principal witness was Dr. McEachren, V. S., Manager of the Waldron Ranch since 1883. He stated that if the dressed meat trade could be established it would increase the value of beef cattle from twenty-five per cent to thirty per cent, but that the difficulties in the way were almost insurmountable.

Notwithstanding the difficulty of securing adequate and profitable markets for cattle and beef products the number of cattle steadily increased in numbers and value during the five years from 1911 to 1916. The number of milk cows increased from 147,649 to 284,895 and the average farm value per head from \$43 to \$77 in the period. Other cattle increased from 592,076 to 893,886 and the average value from \$27 to \$56 per head. By 1916 the great shortage of food products due to the war caused beef prices to rise to unprecedented levels and to continue to do so until many months after the close of the war. The high prices of beef were counteracted by correspondingly high prices of grain and labour, and consequently the cattlemen received no more net profit during the period of high prices than in normal times.

In order to encourage beef production during the war the federal Department of Agriculture authorized in 1916 what was known as the Car lot policy to effect a more equal distribution of live stock throughout the country, especially from the areas of the province that had suffered from drought to the central and northern parts where grass and fodder were in great abundance. By this policy the Government paid the reasonable traveling expenses of the representative of any group or Association of farmers desiring to purchase feeding or breeding stock in Carload lots. Later, in 1917, this policy was supplemented by a free freight policy in cooperation with the railroad Companies. The Car lot policy was effective in turning back to country points a large percentage of stockers and feeders of all classes and prevented a ruinous depletion by slaughter and exportation of the live stock herds. Under the Free Freight policy female breeding stock was shipped free from the stockyards to country points, the railway Companies bearing twenty-five per cent and the federal government seventy-five per cent of the freight charges. From September 21, 1917, to December 31, 1919, some 40,000 heifers were turned back from the central stockyards of Alberta. This work was enlarged by the Provincial Department of Agriculture, by the Live Stock Encouragement Act, 1917. Under this act the Provincial Government gave assistance to farmers to obtain female breeding stock. Five or more persons engaged in practical farming could organize as an association and each could procure a loan up to \$500.00 for the purchase of cows and heifers. All purchases and arrangements were subject to the approval of the Live Stock Commissioner. Up to December 31, 1920 over 26,000 cattle had been placed on farms in Alberta at a cost to the Government of \$1,704,000.00. The first instalment in payment of the loans became due in 1922.

The number of cattle reached the peak in 1919. In that year there

were 336,596 milk cows and 1,247,448 other cattle. By the end of 1920 the number of milk cows had decreased to 305,607 and other cattle to 1,050,334. The decrease was due to the very dry season of 1919 in Southern Alberta, and the severe winter season of 1920. This was one of the longest and coldest winters since 1906-07 and resulted in a great shortage of feed and a high mortality of the ill-nourished stock in many parts of the province and a heavy liquidation. Prices also reached the peak in 1918. The average farm value of milk cows rose to \$93 per head, and the average farm value of other cattle to \$70 per head. The highest price reached on the Calgary market was \$16.80 per hundred live weight in May 1918.

The fall of 1920 marked a great slump in cattle prices to pre-war levels. This was accentuated by the United States Emergency Tariff of 1921 imposing a duty on Canadian cattle entering the United States, which with the adverse exchange rate raised the tariff to nearly forty per cent. Since 1911 Canadian cattle entered the United States free of duty and a considerable trade was growing. In the four years ending 1920 over 90,000 cattle were shipped to United States points from Alberta. The effect of the tariff has been to close this market to the Alberta producers, which coupled with a restricted export of dressed beef has brought back the days of three-cent and four-cent beef.

For many years an agitation has been fostered by the Western Live Stock Union to have the embargo placed on Canadian cattle by the British Government removed. The agitation was taken up by the Governments of the Dominion and the provinces in 1920 and delegates sent to give evidence before the Royal Commission of Inquiry on the Cattle Embargo in Great Britain. Hon S. F. Tolmie, Minister of Agriculture for Canada, and Hon. Duncan Marshall, Minister of Agriculture for Alberta, attended the Commission and gave evidence on behalf of Canadian and Alberta cattle owners. A permanent export outlet seems necessary to Alberta to find a market for partially finished cattle which cannot be absorbed by the domestic trade. Owing to climatic conditions, shortage of labor and to the sparsely settled and partially developed state of the country, Alberta will produce for a long time a larger number of store cattle than can be profitably finished at home.

Interest in the chilled meat trade was revived in 1921 by the appointment of a Commission by the Alberta Government. Messrs. John Wilson, Vice President of the Alberta Cattle Breeders' Association, William Spurrell, Chairman of the Chilled Meat Committee of the United Farmers of Alberta, proceeded to England that year and made careful investigations into this phase of the cattle trade. The findings of the Commission indicated that there were favorable possibilities in the trade. The cost of transporting the carcass of a 1,200 lb. steer, dressing 660 pounds to London from Edmonton was estimated at \$38.67 and the total returns therefor at \$126.30.



POSTOFFICE, EDMONTON



CIVIC BLOCK, EDMONTON

Investigation was also made by the Dominion Live Stock Branch in the summer of 1921 into the conditions under which the Canadian live fat cattle trade with Great Britain was carried on and what measures of improvement could be suggested. The investigation led to the conclusion that Canadian live fat cattle could be profitably marketed in Great Britain provided care was observed as to numbers, quality and regularity of shipment.

The basic stock of the prairies was the American cattle imported in the early eighties, principally of the Texan and Spanish strains. The opening of the export trade to Great Britain taught the ranchers that if they were to gain a foothold in this market they must get rid of culls and breed high class steers. The local market was crowded and even culls were not salable at paying prices. The pure breeds introduced were mostly Herefords and Shorthorns. Polled Angus were also introduced and some of the most successful stockmen bred from West Highlanders. Carelessness in this respect was common. Commissioner Herchmer in his report for 1889 stated: "All sorts of bulls, many of them perfect brutes, run the prairie, and as long as free ranging is followed I cannot see that there can be any general improvement. In one herd a traveller will see Shorthorns, Galloways, Herefords, Polled Angus, occasionally a West Highlander and a good sprinkling of runts."

Beyond the ranching country principally in Central and Northern Alberta, conditions in this respect were no better. A great many inferior cattle were brought in by settlers from Nebraska, Kansas and Oregon. One official of the Department of the Interior reported that it was almost impossible to imagine that such inferior specimens of the bovine species existed in the world.

Ten years later Commissioner Herchmer reported: "I regret to report that the class of cattle in the country is not generally as good as formerly. The steers show less breeding and are smaller, caused, I think, by reducing the number of Shorthorn bulls and using Herefords, Angus, etc., indiscriminately. The best ranchers are now going back to Shorthorns. The best steers come from small ranches where the stockmen feed hay all winter and can attend to the breeding of their cows."

In order to improve pure breeding the Territorial government undertook for a number of years to import pure bred from the East for the small farmers, bearing the cost of transportation except a nominal charge of \$5.00 per head. This support was continued by the Alberta Government for a few years.

Conditions have improved since those early days. Some of the foremost breeders in Canada have established herds in Alberta. Mr. Frank Collicutt of Crossfield has a herd of over 500 Herefords, the largest in Canada. In 1917 the Courtice Cattle Co. transferred their entire herd of Herefords from Kentucky to a new home on the Bow River east of Calgary. This is reputed to be one of the finest breeding herds in Canada.

As a mark of the enthusiasm of the Alberta breeders it may be cited that prices as high as \$11,900.00 and \$20,000.00 have been paid by Mr. Collicutt for pure-bred Hereford bulls, Gay Lad 40th and Gay Lad 16th. Other prominent breeders of Herefords are McIntyre Bros. of Magrath who have the finest herd of female pure-breds in the Province; John M. Davidson, Coaldale; Mace Bros., High River; and John Wilson, Innisfail. In 1913 the Alberta Government established a number of demonstration farms at different points in the province. At each of those farms a model herd of some one or two beef and dairy breeds are kept for the purpose of improving such breeds in the vicinity of the farms. In the same year the Dominion Government, through the Live Stock Branch of the federal department of agriculture adopted a policy of loaning pure bred bulls to approved associations of farmers for breeding purposes. Five years later 260 bulls of various breeds were loaned to Alberta associations and it is worthy of note that of this number 226 were Shorthorns. It will be seen, therefore, that Shorthorns have maintained their popularity, particularly with the farmers. The Herefords are more popular with the big ranchers. Shorthorns are well represented in the herds of Charles Yule, Carstairs; Louis Bowes, Calgary; Wm. Short, Edmonton; The Prince of Wales' Ranch, High River; W. W. Sharpe, Stettler; William Sharpe, James Sharpe and Percy Talbot, Lacombe; Hon. Duncan Marshall, Olds; J. G. Clark, Irma; and T. Bertram Ralph, Airdrie. As representative of the type of excellence aimed at by Alberta breeders it may be cited that "Dale Viscount," a Shorthorn bull owned by Hon. Duncan Marshall, won second in his class at the Chicago International in 1919.

For many years the pure breeders of cattle in Alberta were organized as one body, The Alberta Cattle Breeders' Association, but in 1917 separate associations were formed representing the Shorthorn, Hereford and Aberdeen Angus breeds. It marked the careful attention that is being given by Alberta breeders in later years to the improvement of the respective breeds.

BRANDS AND STOCK INSPECTION.

Brands are used in order to identify live stock on the open range. The letter, sign, numeral or character constituting the brand is determined and allotted to each owner of stock by the Recorder of Brands. This official is appointed by the Government and keeps a record of the brands and the owners to whom they have been allotted. The presence of a recorded brand on any stock is *prima facie* evidence of ownership. No person may have more than two brands for horses and two for cattle. In order to denote the transfer of ownership of any stock, the transferer is compelled to mark his vent at the time of the transfer. In case, however, the stock are intended for slaughter or export the purchaser may waive this right in lieu of a certificate of purchase from the former owner.

HERD AND POUND LAWS.

In the early days of the Province live stock ranged freely over the prairie, but as settlement advanced and grain growing became an important industry some legal restrictions were necessary to protect the farmer and the grain grower. Such restrictions are embodied in the herd and pound laws. Under the Pound Ordinance a pound district may be formed by proclamation of the Lieutenant-Governor in Council of any territory not less than a township not included in a municipality, provided a majority of the landowners in such territory do not object. Within the area of the pound district animals designated "estrays" may be impounded and disposed of according to law. The Lieutenant-Governor in Council has power to define what domestic animals shall be prohibited from running at large and to fix the time in the year during which the pound law shall be in force.

The herd law applies to districts north of township 24 and east of Range 11 West of 4th Meridian and south of the 55th parallel in the Dominion Lands survey. In this part of the Province the Lieutenant-Governor may form a herd district in a manner similar to forming pound districts except that the area of a herd district may not be less than 144 square miles. The law operates only from May 15th to Oct. 30th of each year. During that period estrays may be impounded and disposed of by law. The first pound law was passed in 1881, and the first herd law in 1883.

These laws and others, viz., the Entire Animals Ordinance, Protection of Sheep and other Animals from Dogs, Stray Animals Ordinance, The Sheep Trailing Act, Act Restraining Dangerous and Mischievous Animals and the Fence Ordinance were revised and consolidated into one Act—The Domestic Animals Act, in 1920.

CHAPTER XIX.

LIVE STOCK (Continued).

HORSES.

The Beginning and Development of the Horse Industry:—The native horse of the prairies was the Indian Pony used by the Plain Indians to hunt the buffalo. Lord Southesk who crossed the plains in 1859 says that buffalo runners cost from \$20.00 to \$40.00. Prior to the coming of the North West Mounted Police in 1874 very few well-bred horses were to be found in the West. Horses from Eastern Canada proved more serviceable for the hard work of police duty than the native stock. The Government established farms in connection with a number of the police forts to breed a supply of suitable horses for the Police Force. One of the earliest of these farms was situated west of Fort Macleod near Pincher Creek. A few good horses were raised by the early settlers in the vicinity of Fort Macleod and Calgary but not in sufficient numbers to satisfy the needs of the Mounted Police for remounts.

In the early eighties Alberta horsemen became very enthusiastic about breeding horses for the British Army. The Quorn Ranch and others imported many fine mares and a number of famous sires like Eagle Plume, Silk Gown and Acrostic were brought into the country. Many fine cavalry horses were bred, but the market failed and the fine mares of the Quorn Ranch were afterwards used as plow animals.

In 1886 the officers of the Department of the Interior estimated the number of horses in Southern Alberta to be about 10,000. These were mostly found in the Calgary and Macleod districts. From that date the horse ranching developed into a separate and profitable industry in Southern and Central Alberta. Three thousand, five hundred animals, most of whom were mares, were imported that year from Oregon, British Columbia and Ontario. Breeders began importing sires from England and Kentucky and an attempt was made to place the industry on a sound basis and to breed the type of horse suitable for draught and agricultural work. The climate, grass and other conditions of the country were found to be ideally adapted for raising superior animals. Dr. McEachren, the chief veterinary inspector of the Dominion, reported to the Government in 1887 as follows:

“Probably no better horsebreeding country exists in the British Empire than the district of Alberta.” Several important ranches like the

Stimson Ranch at High River and the Cochrane Ranch on the Bow River were established in 1887. The ranges began to flourish with representatives of the most important breeds—Irish Hunters, Clydesdales, Hackneys and Thoroughbreds. Horsemen soon realized that the day of the cayuse was past, and that better care in selection, feeding and handling was imperative. A picture of the conditions that prevailed in this respect is seen in the following words of Dr. McEachren:

“The days of breaking young horses as done by the broncho rider are over, viz., catching him with the lasso, blindfolding him, saddling and mounting him, and with whips and spurs making the poor, frightened creature buck, rear, plunge and gallop over the prairie until horse and rider are exhausted, and broken in spirit and subdued by fatigue the horse yields a sullen obedience, but is utterly untaught, unmannered and devoid of ‘mouth’.”

In 1888 all the remounts necessary for the Mounted Police were obtained in the Territories. Thirty individuals of fine quality, the first Alberta-bred horses offered for sale in the country, were purchased from Frank Strong of Macleod. The remainder were procured from the North West Cattle Company. Prices varied from \$125.00 for saddle horses to \$150.00 for team horses. In the next three years a great many horses were brought into the country from England, Oregon and Montana, but apart from a few of the best breeders there were a great many horses of poor quality on the ranges. In 1891 the Mounted Police were unable to get more than one hundred remounts in the Territories suitable for police work. The reason given by Commissioner Herchmer of the Police Force was that breeders tried to raise sixteen-hand animals from fourteen-hand mares. Several hundreds were sent to England in 1892. These were of a class refused by the Police and so the experiment proved of little value. Great difficulty was found in finding a market, due to the inferior quality of the horses offered and to the general trade depression and the introduction of electric cars in eastern cities. Commissioner Herchmer stated that one-half the mares in the country could have been killed off without injuring the horse industry. The price of the best horses fell to \$60.00. Heavy Clydes from 1,400 to 1,600 pounds brought no more than \$75.00.

The police census of 1895 showed that there were 42,257 horses on the ranges; most of these were in Southern Alberta. 1896 and 1897 were very dull years for the horsemen. Many sold their horses for what they could get and went into cattle ranching. William Pearce, Superintendent of Mines, reported to the Minister of the Interior in 1897 that there were not thirty per cent of the horses on the ranges between townships nine and twenty-four that were there two years before.

The stream of immigration that began to trickle in 1898, and in later years to actually pour in, gave the first great impetus to the horse industry in Alberta and Western Canada. Those horsemen who stuck to the

business during the dull years from 1893 to 1898 now began to do well. The Klondike gold boom created a great demand for pack horses. Cayuses and Indian ponies, which had formerly been the scourge of the horse trade, were taken in hundreds at prices that were obtained for good horses. The Commissioner of the Police stated in 1899 that the price of horses had increased fifty per cent and that breeders were giving more attention to heavy classes suitable for farm work. In former years breeders had an idea that the only market available was the Army or the Mounted Police but the rapid settlement and agricultural development that set in in 1900 taught them that the most profitable market lay at their very doors. From that time to the present (1919) the supply of suitable horses for farm and dray work has seldom been above the demand.

The extraordinary demand in the Province referred to above began to attract the inferior and surplus stock from the Montana ranges. Owing to the low duty these were dumped into Western Canada and glutted the limited market for low grades and misfits of our own ranges. The horse-breeders, through the Horsebreeders' Association, petitioned the Dominion Government in 1902 to impose a minimum valuation on all horses imported into Canada. Over 21,000 horses had been brought into the Territories in 1902 at an average valuation of \$25.00 a head. Of this number at least one-half, it was said, were imported for breeding purposes. The minimum asked for was \$75.00 which was reduced by the Dominion Government to \$50.00. Stallions and mares valued under \$50.00 were prohibited from being imported into Canada. With this achievement the horse industry has immensely grown in importance in the development of agriculture. The interests of horsemen have been actively kept to the front by the Alberta Horsebreeders' Association—the organization that superseded the Territorial Association when Alberta became a separate province. Legislation respecting the enrolling of stallions was enforced by the legislature of the Territories in 1903. By this means inferior sires with mongrel pedigrees were practically prohibited from being imported or being used within the Province and what was a menace to innocent breeders was removed.

Considerable interest in light horse breeding was aroused by the prospect of supplying remounts for the British Army. Representatives of the War Office in London (Col. C. H. Bridge, C. B., C. M. G., and Major Drage, V. S.) visited the Province in 1905 and selected 111 horses. The shipment was almost totally destroyed in transit by a railway collision. Next year 115 horses were selected by Colonel Bridge for the Army, but owing to the great demand that sprang up within the Province for this class of horses the sales to the Army ceased.

From 1905 to the outbreak of the war good horses found a ready market. Railway development was active. Settlers were pouring into the country. Mining camps and lumbering camps afforded a splendid market for the best heavy draught teams. Horses of sufficient weight

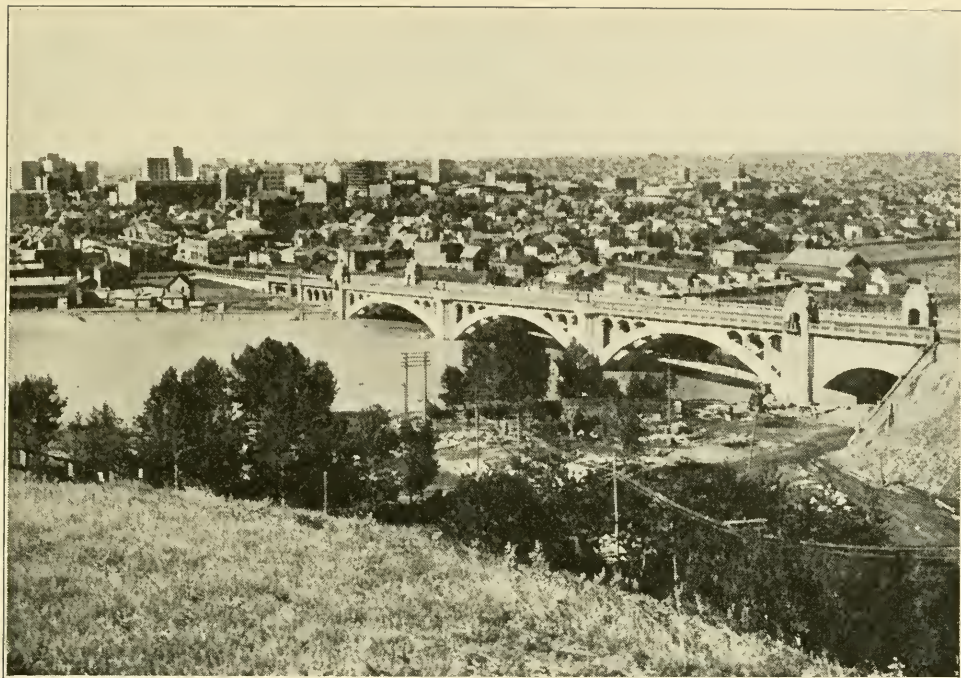
sold at prices varying from \$500.00 to \$700.00 a team in British Columbia. Teams from 2,800 to 3,500 pounds were worth from \$350.00 to \$400.00, smaller teams from \$300.00 to \$350.00. The big horse ranches began to disappear in 1904 and 1905. Thousands of young mares were sold off the ranges. The effect was soon seen in the decrease in the number of horses. Railway contractors were forced to import mules, and tractors began to take the place of horses on the large farms. In 1909 and 1910 it was estimated the railway contractors imported 2,500 teams of mules. By the end of the period (1905-1913) motor trucks and tractors so influenced the horse market that prices fell \$25.00 to \$50.00 per head. A cycle of railway building was completed and the contractors threw many horses on the market, which had a bearish effect on prices.

The war did not cause such a rise in horses as it did in other classes of live stock. When the war broke out it was expected that the British Army would take large numbers of horses from Alberta. Breeders were again disappointed. The army officers offered low prices and horsemen seemed to imagine that a horse that was no good for work in Alberta was the right horse for the Army. In 1916, however, the cry for increased production raised a keen demand for all classes of good farm horses and several thousand were imported from Eastern Canada. From 1914 to 1920 the number of horses in the Province increased from 520,000 to 800,000. Though many influences have been at work to improve the quality of horses, unfortunately the increase is inferior to the best types and to the splendid foundation stock imported and bred in the early days.

Alberta horses have always been comparatively free from disease. Glanders and mange have broken out from time to time, but these diseases have been generally traced to outside sources. Glanders was imported by the Blackfoot Indians in 1877 from Montana where they spent the winter hunting the buffalo. The eradication of the disease entailed a great deal of labor and expense upon the government and it was not until 1886 that it was under control. Strict quarantine regulations have been enforced from time to time ever since, according to the occurrence of mange and glanders. Range riders were maintained by the Health of Animals Bureau of the federal department of Agriculture who searched the ranges for infected animals. Since 1917 glanders has been practically extinct in the provinces.

In 1904 douraine or "maladie du coit" made its appearance among the horses in Southern Alberta, being introduced by some of the settlers from the Western States. This proved to be one of the most insidious diseases of the range. The Health of Animals Branch established a research laboratory at Lethbridge. Here Dr. Watson worked for a number of years to produce a serum that enabled horsemen to cure the disease in its incipient stages. This result was obtained in 1917 and since that time douraine has ceased to be a menace to the horsemen.

Clydesdales and Percherons are the favorite breeds with Alberta horse-



CALGARY, 1918



FIRST STREET WEST, LOOKING NORTH FROM TWELFTH AVENUE, CALGARY

men although there are many Shires and Suffolks among the heavy draught types. The marvelous growth of motor cars has caused a decline in the various classes of light horses. At one time the province had many fine Hackneys and Standard Breds. Alberta has won high honors in competition on these breeds with the best horsebreeders of the world. The champion Hackney at the Pan-American Exhibition in 1901 and the New York Horse Show in the same year came from the Rawlinson Ranch ten miles from the city of Calgary. Again, the Champion Hackney Stallion and Hackney Mare at the World's Fair, St. Louis, 1904, "Saxon" and "Priscilla", were bred and raised in Alberta. The finest and largest herd of Percherons in America are located in Alberta, owned by George Lane. The herd comprises over 500 head. Since 1918 over 75 head of this great herd have been sent to England to establish a Percheron stud. In 1920 the Provincial Department of Agriculture in co-operation with the Clydesdale and Percheron Associations imported two stallions, the best individuals of the breeds obtainable, for special breeding purposes.

SHEEP.

Rise and Progress of the Industry: The sheep industry of Alberta dates from the early eighties. The first flocks were established in the open range country in the southern part of the provisional district and ran in bands of from 2,000 to 5,000 head. The first wool shipment containing 70,000 lbs. was made in 1884. The foundation stock imported mostly from Montana and Wyoming was of the Marino or Rambouillet breed with varying grades of impurity crossed with Shropshires or Ox-fords, with small carcasses and heavy fleeces. Wool was generally low in price and flock-masters introduced Downs and long wool varieties with a view to increasing the weight of the carcass, as mutton was more profitable than wool. Sheep ranchers and cattle ranchers appeared on the plains about the same time. The first leases were granted in 1881 and regulations governing the issue of leases were authorized by O. C., December 23, 1881. Differences between the sheep and cattle men quickly followed. In 1882 an O. C. was passed prohibiting the grazing of sheep on Dominion Lands. In 1884 this area was restricted to that portion of Alberta south of the Highwood and Bow Rivers. The sheepmen were driven eastward into Assiniboia, and the number of sheep in the district rapidly decreased. It is very difficult to ascertain accurately from any available source the number of sheep in the Territories at various times. Dr. McEachren in his report for 1887 states that there were about 18,000 sheep in the country and that the industry was "eminently successful." The same year the inspector of ranches reported 15,266 sheep on leased lands in the Territories, 5,800 of which were in Alberta.

The restrictions imposed by the regulations of 1884 discouraged the sheepmen. Commissioner Herchmer, of the N. W. M. P., in his report

for 1889, states: "The large sheep ranches are disappearing and I think the industry will resolve itself into keeping small flocks on homesteads." This was not feasible unless the flocks were fenced in. In the country south of Macleod and Lethbridge the industry almost vanished. Dr. Wroughton, quarantine officer, in his report for 1890, after gathering information from ranchers and other sources, reported 1,004 sheep in this part of Southern Alberta. The same year Superintendent McIllree took a house-to-house census of the stock in the Calgary district, that is from Mosquito Creek north to the Little Red Deer River, and found 18,000 head.

After 1890 the sheep industry improved, the number of sheep increased and the business became, to those who exercised reasonable care with their flocks, profitable. The most favored districts lay east of Alberta between Swift Current and Maple Creek, though a large flock was placed on the Alberta Railway & Coal Company's lands in the vicinity of Lee's Creek. Scab broke out in 1893. The disease was brought from Idaho. A great many flocks had been imported from across the border the previous year, from districts where scab had been prevalent. Active measures were taken to stamp out the disease. Dr. McEachren, the chief veterinary officer of the Dominion Government, visited the Territories and established quarantine districts. All movement of sheep was prohibited except under specific instructions, viz., inspection by authorized inspector, certificate of health, and movement for slaughter only at their destination. The quarantine districts were as follows:

- (a) Tps. 1 to 16, inclusive, West of the 3rd Meridian.
Ranges 23 to 30, inclusive, West of the 3rd Meridian.
- (b) Tps. 1 to 16, inclusive, West of the 4th Meridian.
Ranges 1 to 8, inclusive, West of the 4th Meridian.
- (c) Range 25 as far north as Tp. 9 West of the 4th Meridian.
- (d) Range 16 as far north as Tp. 9 West of the 4th Meridian.

The extent of the revival of the industry previous to the outbreak of scab may be deduced from Dr. McEachren's visit to the various ranches in 1893. He found over 45,000 sheep on the ranches he visited, varying in flocks of from 1,000 to 5,000. Before the appearance of scab an export trade had been opened with Great Britain but the presence of scab influenced the British Government to place an embargo on Canadian sheep. Coupled with the great losses due to the disease the sheepmen received a serious set-back. Wool was only 7 to 9 cents a pound and the low prices of sheep in Montana enabled the Montana mutton growers to undersell the Alberta producers in British Columbia, the only market open to the latter. As in the case of the cattle trade the development of the British Columbia mines produced a similar prosperity in the mutton trade. From 1899 until 1902 the sheepmen, notwithstanding what was alleged to be unfavorable grazing regulations, made more money than the cattlemen. Commissioner Herchmer in his report of 1899, states: "While the quality of cattle is not improving, that of sheep is, rapidly, and there is

a great difference in the appearance and value of our sheep and those across the line which are not so carefully bred up." During this period great numbers of sheep were imported from Montana and Wyoming and doubts arose lest the Canadian range would be overstocked. Seventy thousand sheep were reported to be in the Lethbridge district alone in 1901 compared with 1,004 ten years before. Eighty thousand more were reported between Swift Current and Langevin. In a letter to the Department of the Interior, F. W. Martin, a prominent breeder of Maple Creek, reported 230,000 sheep in Western Assiniboia. One flock in Alberta, that of Jesse Knight of Raymond, numbered 46,000 head.

The revival of the industry renewed the old quarrel between the sheepmen and the cattlemen. A special investigation was made by the Dominion Government in 1901 with the result that separate territory was allotted to the respective parties, the sheepmen being driven into the country between Medicine Hat and Swift Current. The herds gradually drifted back into Southeastern Alberta and by 1906 there were 154,266 sheep in Alberta compared with 121,556 in Saskatchewan.

The storm of 1903 was probably one of the most disastrous in the history of the sheep industry. It came in the most critical period of the lambing season, and most of the lambs on the large ranches perished. Many of the largest sheep owners sold their entire stock and went into cattle. Large breeding flocks were sold for mutton, causing production to fall below the demand and requiring importation from New South Wales and the United States to meet the wants of the local market.

By 1905 the open land of Southern Alberta has been nearly all taken up by homesteaders and sheep were regarded as outcasts and the sheep ranchers as pirates on the range.

From that date until 1910 the ranching industry steadily declined. The census of 1911 showed that there were 21,000 fewer sheep in Alberta than in 1906, and it became apparent that the only hope of expansion lay in the establishment of farm flocks. Meanwhile the population was growing and large importations from the United States, Australia and New Zealand became necessary to maintain the mutton supplies. In 1909 it was estimated that those importations reached 60,000 sheep and 15,000 lambs.

Until 1910 almost 90 per cent of the sheep in the province were found south of township 25. In that year a great many flocks varying from 200 to 1,000 head were moved northward over the Red Deer River to the lands then opened in Central Alberta. This year marked a turn in the sheep industry. Farm flocks became general and the number of sheep steadily increased.

The eyes of the sheep rangemen now turned to the Foothills for pasturage. Through the efforts of the Wool Growers Association in 1912 it was found that there was sufficient summer range for over 50,000 sheep

and later permission was given to run sheep in the Forest Reserves. From 1909 the number of sheep increased from 130,000 to 383,000.

For many years the great bulk of the wool grown in Alberta and Saskatchewan represented a class of its own among Canadian wools. It was known as "Western Wool" or "Territorial Wool." The yearly clip, amounting to about 1,000,000 pounds in the grease, representing nearly 500,000 pounds of scoured wool, was classed as medium fine. The western sheep grower differed from the sheepmen in any other part of Canada in that he began the industry with wool breeds, as opposed to mutton breeds. The development of agriculture and mixed farming tended to make mere wool growing unprofitable. This branch of the sheep industry declined, from a variety of causes. The wool grower from the first was regarded more of an intruder in range land than a pioneer of progress. From the conditions of his situation he made his business an understudy of that of the States across the line, practically divorcing himself from the rest of the Canadian sheep growers. While the woollen manufacturers were protected by a customs duty the wool grower had no protection and in addition had to pay a high duty on wire fencing to guard his flocks from the ravages of timber wolves and coyotes. Consequently wool was an unsatisfactory product in Western Canada, often selling as low as 7 and 8 cents a pound. The mutton market was at the producer's door but the wool market was in the manufacturing centres of the east. The tariff which was imposed to protect the coarse wools of the east gave no protection to the finest grades of the western wool.

The Dingley tariff cut off a large market for western wool and led the Territorial Sheepbreeders' Association to petition the federal government to take fine wool off the free list and give them a chance to supply the ten million pounds of wool annually imported into Canada.

The improvement in the prospects of the sheep industry during the last few years encouraged wool growers to devote greater attention to the requirements of the foreign market respecting dipping the sheep, washing and sorting the wool.

In 1916 the Australian method of shearing and baling wool was introduced into the province. Mr. M. R. C. Harvey, a veteran sheepman, established the first plant at Chin Lakes. The new methods coupled with a more co-operative system of marketing greatly assisted in the success of the sheep industry. The annual clip is about 2,500,000 pounds. The influence of the war on the sheep industry was reflected in rising prices for wool and mutton. From 1905 to 1910 the average price of wool was 14 cents a pound. By 1915 the price rose to 27 cents a pound, and in the closing days of the war Alberta wool sold for 63 cents a pound. Mutton rose in the same period to \$7.80 in 1915, to \$10.50 in 1916 and to \$16.00 in 1918, live weight.

Difficulties Between Cattlemen and Sheepmen:—From the first the sheepmen and cattlemen came into conflict. As we have seen, sheep-

grazing on Dominion Lands was prohibited in 1882 and 1884, within certain areas. These regulations remained in force until 1893. At that time it would appear from the official records that neither the officers of the Territorial Government nor the land agents of the Department of the Interior were clear as to the nature of the sheep grazing regulations. There was great uncertainty among ranchmen as to what parts of the country were open for sheep grazing. Accordingly in 1893 regulations were passed prohibiting the grazing of sheep in any part of Alberta west of the C. & E. Railway, the Bow, Belly and St. Mary Rivers to the international boundary. All that part of Alberta east of the St. Mary River and south of the Saskatchewan River was set apart exclusively for the grazing of sheep. In all other parts of Alberta and the Territories it was necessary to have the consent of the Minister of the Interior to obtain a grazing lease for sheep (O. C. April 22, 1893). With the advance of settlement and the growth of the sheep and cattle industries, the clash of interests became more and more acute, and in 1901 the Department of the Interior appointed Mr. E. W. Burley to make an investigation into the conditions. A joint meeting of the opposing parties was held in Medicine Hat August 24, 1901, and as a result thereof Commissioner Burley reported that the proper course to follow was to throw the country open to sheep and cattle alike. Mr. Burley was succeeded by Mr. W. Stuart, and another meeting was held at Medicine Hat, October 1, 1902. Both parties agreed that there was room in the country for both industries. On January 1, 1903, new departmental regulations were passed respecting grazing leases. The grazing tract in Alberta comprised the part of the provinces south of township 29. Within this area certain areas were reserved exclusively for sheep, viz.:

(a) Ranges 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18 in Townships 9 and 10; also the parts of ranges 11, 12, 13, 14, 15 and 16 in Townships 9 south of the Bow and Saskatchewan rivers.

(b) A block of 8 townships on the shore of Lake Pakowski, and along Etzikom Coulee comprised in ranges 8, 9, 10, 11 in townships 5 and 6.

(c) A block of 10 townships around Many Island Lake a few miles northeast of Medicine Hat. This area was continuous with a large area extending eastward into Saskatchewan comprising 80 townships, the greater part of which was north of the main line of the C. P. R.

(d) Two small areas were set apart in the Cypress Hills for grazing during the season when spear grass was prevalent on the sheep ranges.

SWINE.

The swine industry developed slowly in Alberta. In the early days it did not appeal to the settlers like the cattle and sheep industries. No attempt was made to produce on a scale big enough to establish an export trade. For many years the supply of hogs in the Northwest was away

below the demand. The Government of the Northwest Territories made repeated attempts to establish the industry on a better basis by importing pure-bred stock and disposing of them on advantageous terms to the farmers. Up to 1903 the Government had distributed 681 pure-bred sows and 122 pure-bred boars in the North West Territories. Eighteen small packing houses were in operation.

The great obstacle to the growth of the industry was the want of a steady market. Prices were controlled by local influences. Packers and buyers failed to realize that the years of low prices were also years of small profits and so "misused the opportunity presented by large offerings to depress prices below a reasonable level as to discourage the farmers and lessen the output." Dissatisfaction with market conditions grew to such an extent that in 1907 the Government of Alberta instructed the Beef Commission to conduct an inquiry into the hog industry. The Commissioners reported that the farmers had no confidence in the market. "There have been times when prices have been high, sufficiently so to encourage the farmers engaging extensively in the industry but when a large number of hogs came on the market the price dropped below the cost of production. This condition of affairs has been repeated several times in the last decade, so that at the present time the farmers, while anxious to engage in the business, will not venture because of the uncertainty of the market. We are forced to believe that there is a monopoly in the industry, and that the privilege has been abused." Another authority dealing with the problem declared: "The price depends upon nothing but what the buyer thinks the producer will take."

The Commission reported further that 75 per cent of the cured pork used in the province was imported from Eastern Canada and the United States and sold at ridiculously high prices. In consequence of the conditions that prevailed the Commission recommended the Government to undertake the establishment and management of a Government pork packing plant, somewhere between Edmonton and Calgary.

In 1908 the Government followed up the work of the Beef Commission by a second Commission known as the Pork Commission appointed to definitely inquire into the feasibility of a government co-operative pork-packing plant. This body recommended, among other things, that when a sufficient number of hog growers gave a reasonable assurance that they would supply at least 50,000 hogs per year, and elect officers and directors to look after a steady supply of hogs, to decide on the money necessary to establish a plant, and to look after the conduct and ability of the operators, the government should undertake to furnish the money to build, equip and operate a plant as the directors deemed advisable. In compliance with this recommendation the legislature voted \$50,000 in 1909 to this project to be applied as soon as the farmers would contract to furnish 50,000 hogs per year. A canvass of the province was made and the number of hogs promised amounted to only 12,764, consequently the

co-operative scheme failed and nothing has been attempted in this respect since.

The prosperity of the hog industry is best indicated by the number in the province each year during the last twelve years. The numbers indicate a rise and fall about every five years. As prices increase the numbers increase to a peak and then fall more or less suddenly. Hogs increased from 139,000 in 1909 to 397,000 the next year. The great demand for bacon and hog products that set in about the end of 1915 caused a sudden rise in the number in the province to 603,000 in 1916 and reached the maximum in the history of the swine industry of Alberta in 1917 when the number of hogs was 730,000. During this period the price of hogs soared to \$18.32½ per hundred live weight in 1918, showing that the price depends on continuous export to save the producer from the power of the local packers and butchers. Another factor also entered into the price. That was the high cost of rough grains and farm labor. These factors coupled with bad harvests in certain parts of the province discouraged farmers so much that it required a strong and persistent propaganda by the governments, federal and provincial, to prevent throwing lean and unfinished hogs upon the market. Since 1918 the number of hogs has been falling at the rate of about 150,000 a year. As in the case of the cattle industry the hog industry is back to where it was in 1906.

CHAPTER XX.

IRRIGATION AND WATER CONSERVATION IN ALBERTA.

Lying south of the Red Deer River valley and between the Cypress Hills and the Rocky Mountains, is an expanse of territory relatively dry and suitable for irrigation. In its natural state the territory is admirably adapted for grazing and though the rainfall is sufficient in some years to produce splendid cereal crops, the recurrence of dry years is so frequent that irrigation is necessary to sustain successful agriculture.

In the early days of the province it was the great ranching district of the North West Territories, but owing to the demand for land following the construction of the C. P. R. in 1884 the grazing regulations whereby large areas were leased to stock growers were cancelled and the district opened for homesteading. The cancellation of the grazing regulations went into effect in 1893 and active settlement began. With settlement the movement for irrigation arose. The father of the movement may be said to have been Mr. William Pearce of Calgary, for several years Superintendent of Mines under the Department of the Interior.

The first irrigation ditch in the North West Territories was constructed by Mr. John Glenn who in 1875 squatted on what upon survey proved to be section 3, township 23, range 1, west 5th meridian. The ditch was constructed about 1878. The water was taken out of Fish Creek and an area of 15 to 20 acres irrigated. Next, two Americans who squatted on the Peigan Indian Reserve before it was surveyed, tapped Beaver Creek so as to convey water to a small portion of land whenever the creek overflowed. In 1889, water was taken out of Big Bear Creek which lies on the north slope of the Cypress Hills and enters into Crane Lake, by ditch, to create more hay lands. The next ditch constructed in the territory is supposed to have been in the year 1891 by Mr. John Quirk. The water was taken out of the north fork of Sheep Creek about section 5, township 20, range 4, west 5th. This was one of the most successful of the early ditches.

The first Irrigation Company chartered by Act of Parliament of Canada was organized in 1891 when the Macleod Irrigation Company received its charter. In 1892 the High River and Sheep Creek Irrigation Company was incorporated and in the same year the Alberta Railway and Coal Company received authority to construct irrigation works under their charter. In 1893 charters were granted to the Alberta Irrigation Company, the Calgary Hydraulic Company and the Calgary Irrigation Company.

When the Northwest Irrigation Act was passed in 1894 the necessity for private charters for irrigation companies ceased.

For a time the Government of Canada did not favour irrigation for fear of creating a bad impression abroad respecting the North West Territories as a field for settlement. But the proportion of the North-West requiring irrigation was so small in comparison with the total area of the territories that such an apprehension was unwarrantable. The area comprises less than 50 million acres and is watered by nine large rivers besides many small tributaries. At the southwestern corner of the area is a large natural reservoir, the Waterton Lakes, available to augment the water supply for an immense district. In due course the Government found that irrigation lands had become a factor in attracting settlers to Southern Alberta as much as the lands in the so-called fertile belt north of the Red Deer River and in the valley of the North Saskatchewan.

A large portion of the territory had been granted to railways. The Canadian Pacific Railway Company held every odd-numbered section within the railway belt. That was a strip of land extending twenty-four miles on each side of the main line of the railway. One of the conditions of the grant of land to the C. P. R. by the contract of 1881 was that the land comprised in the railway belt should be fit for settlement. In order to make such lands fit for settlement, irrigation was necessary. The Company, however, could not irrigate its own lands without benefiting the even numbered sections. It therefore applied to Parliament to have the original contract altered respecting the lands in the railway belt and to have lands conveyed en bloc. The area surveyed comprised about 4,952,000 acres, of which 250,000 acres belonged to the Hudson's Bay Company by the deed of surrender of 1870 and 275,000 acres were school lands. Accordingly an Act was passed by the Dominion Parliament in 1894 authorizing the land subsidy in the railway belt from Medicine Hat to Crowfoot Crossing to be granted wholly or in part in solid tracts in such area as agreed upon between the Government and the Company. The Act did not affect the Hudson's Bay Company land unless the Hudson's Bay Company consented, nor did it affect school lands unless other public lands should be set apart in lieu thereof.

The next step in the development of irrigation was the passing of the Northwest Irrigation Act in 1894 (57-58 Victoria c. 30). By this Act the right to the use of all water for any purpose became vested in the Crown. Although it is called an Irrigation Act, it is more properly called a water users' act. Water for domestic, irrigation, industrial, municipal and other purposes as well as stream measurements, survey of storage reservoirs, inspection of works for the use of water, construction of drainage work and the granting of all licenses for the use of water, are administered under this Act. In order to determine the quantity of water in the streams and exercise intelligent control over its distribution, an elaborate system of topographical and hydrographic surveys were begun in 1894



MAIN STREET, MACLEOD

under J. S. Dennis, C. E., and in May, 1895, an irrigation office was opened in Calgary.

For a time the survey work was carried on under the direct supervision of the Minister of the Interior, but in 1902 an arrangement was made with the government of the North West Territories whereby irrigation surveys were conducted through the Commissioner of Public Works for the North West Territories, and the report thereon made to the Department of the Interior. This arrangement terminated when the Province of Alberta was organized. Irrigation surveys have been carried on ever since with more or less energy. At the present time the Government and the big irrigation companies have a great fund of data on the possibilities of irrigation farming in the semi-arid districts.

For a number of years after the passing of the North West Irrigation Act, there were a great many small irrigation works undertaken to supply water to individual holdings, as well as several larger works designed to irrigate an extensive acreage. Among the latter the most important were the Calgary Irrigation Company 45,000 acres; Springbank Irrigation Canal west of Calgary 40,000 acres; R. A. Wallace ditch at High River 2,600 acres; Findley & McDougall ditch at High River, 2,600 acres; Robertson ditch at High River 1,265 acres; New Oxley Ranch ditch, Standoff, 1,850 acres; W. R. Hull ditch at Fish Creek, 1,300 acres. At the end of 1885 there were 112 ditches with a capacity of irrigating 79,270 acres in the province. In 1898 the number increased to 177 ditches irrigating 103,464 acres. By 1903 the number of canals and ditches was 163 with a mileage of 480 miles irrigating 623,362 acres.

The year 1901, 1902 and 1903 were wet years and interest in irrigation by small holders declined. From that time the development of irrigation schemes has been almost entirely carried on by the Canadian Pacific Railway Company and large corporations like the Alberta Railway and Irrigation Company and the Southern Alberta Land Company.

One of the first undertakings of the Government in connection with irrigation surveys, was to determine the feasibility of utilizing the waters of the larger streams for the irrigation of large tracts of land. Preliminary surveys were made in 1896 to locate a canal to convey the waters of the St. Mary River to the Lethbridge Plains. Similar surveys were made along the Bow River east of Calgary in the Canadian Pacific Railway Irrigation Block. The first of these projects was developed by the Alberta Irrigation Company subsequently known as the Canadian Northwest Irrigation and later as the Alberta Railway and Irrigation Company and now controlled by the Canadian Pacific Railway Company. Authority for the construction of works was granted in 1898. The detailed surveys were carried out by Mr. George G. Anderson, C. E., who has been prominently identified with irrigation surveys in Alberta ever since and is now consulting engineer of the Alberta Government in connection with its policy of guarantee of irrigation bonds. The water was turned into the canal

in September, 1900. As a result the towns of Magrath, Raymond and Stirling sprang into existence and settlers flocked into the district. In 1900 separate authorization was issued for the construction of works to utilize water from different sources of supply in this region. These works were merged in October, 1902, and amplified to utilize the water from the St. Mary and Milk rivers for the irrigation of the irrigable portion of 500,000 acres. A period of fifteen years was granted for the construction of the necessary works. Development proceeded as settlement warranted and by the end of 1915 the Company had constructed 200 miles of main and secondary canals, not including farm laterals. The capacity of the main canals was 1,000 second-feet; the cost of the works was approximately \$1,368,000; the irrigable area approximately 130,000 acres, of which 75,000 were actually put under irrigation. By 1918 practically the whole of the irrigable land was disposed of to settlers and the canal mileage increased to 230 miles. Further development depends upon obtaining increased water supply. The possibility of obtaining more water depends upon the issue of the International Joint Commission as to the division of the waters of the St. Mary and Milk rivers between the State of Montana and Southern Alberta.

The second of the large projects investigated by Government engineers, demonstrated the feasibility of utilizing the water from the Bow River for the irrigation of a large tract of land extending eastward from Calgary along the main line of the C. P. R. By the Canadian Pacific Railway charter of 1881 the Company was entitled to a grant of 25 million acres to be selected in alternate sections within the railway belt. The company had the right to reject any lands not fairly fit for settlement and had refused to accept as part of its grant, any lands in the region between Moose Jaw and the Rocky Mountains, that is, in the dry belt. Sections in lieu of the land rejected were made in other parts of the province, but at the time of the final settlement in 1903 there was a balance due to the Company of three million acres, which it agreed to take in the dry belt along the main line in Alberta, if it were allowed to take it en bloc. Accordingly the Act referred to previously in this Chapter was passed and the agreement confirmed. The company followed up the surveys conducted by the Government with a view to the construction of irrigation works, and applied for water rights. The block of land concerned was about 125 miles long and 50 miles wide tributary to the Bow River. For convenience of administration the Company divided this immense block into three sections, the western, the central and the eastern of approximately equal area.

The western section was developed first. Authority for the construction of the works was issued April 20, 1904, to be completed within a period of fifteen years. A canal was constructed that heads into the Bow River near Calgary and traverses a tract of 600,000 acres of which 223,000 acres are irrigable. The westerly limit of the irrigable land in this sec-

tion is about ten miles east of Calgary and extends about 45 miles farther east. The main canal is 16 miles with secondary canals and laterals comprising a total length of 2,480 miles. The capacity of the main canal is 2,260 second-feet. The total cost of the works was about \$4,827,000; the number of users 753 and the water rental 50 cents per irrigable acre. The works in this section were completed in 1911 and in August of that year the Company applied to the Government to make the inspection required by law.

Active settlement in this section began in 1908. Dissatisfaction on the part of some of the settlers induced the government to reclassify the land. The work of inspection began in 1913 and was completed in 1915. The net result of these surveys and reclassification was to reduce the irrigable area by 30 per cent. In conjunction with these investigations the government also reported on the climatic conditions, the temperature of the water in the irrigation canals and the suitability of the soil to stand irrigation. It was supposed the water was too cold to stimulate rapid normal growth, and that the soil was impregnated with alkali, which would rise to the surface when put under irrigation. The findings of the Government experts was most satisfactory. It was found the water in the ditch was warmer than rain water and that the occurrence of alkali was not frequent and was confined to small areas. It was established that irrigation may be as successfully pursued in Southern Alberta as anywhere else on the continent.

Before the completion of the works in the western section the Canadian Pacific Railway Company commenced the development of the eastern section. The first step was to raise the level of the Bow River to obtain a head for the main canal. This was done by the construction of an immense dam at a point in the Bow River known as "Horse Shoe Bend" about three miles south of the Town of Bassano. The works consist of a concrete spillway dam of the Ambursen type, 720 feet long, to which is joined an earthen embankment 780 feet long by which the level of the river is raised 50 feet. Water is delivered through five steel sluice gates into the main canal and thence by an elaborate system of sub-canals, reservoirs and flumes and is distributed throughout the irrigable tract. There are 2,500 miles of canals and a reservoir with a capacity of 186,000 acre-feet. The cost of these works was about 10 million dollars. The water was turned into the main canal April 21, 1914.

The third large project in the scheme of irrigation mapped out by the initial government survey, was the works constructed by the Southern Alberta Land Company. This was a company formed to take over a tract of land of 280,573 acres west of Medicine Hat, sold in 1906 to the Robins Irrigation Company of London, England. A condition of the sale was that the company should irrigate at least 25 per cent of the land. The water is taken from the Bow River at a point thirty miles from Calgary (tp. 21, rge. 5). A diversion weir and head gates were constructed at this

point in 1919. The level of the river was raised five feet. The canal from the river runs along the Blackfoot Reserve and southward into Snake Valley for a distance of 44 miles to a Reservoir known as "Lake McGregor"—so-called after J. D. McGregor, one of the principal shareholders of the Southern Alberta Land Company. The capacity of this Reservoir is 360,000 acre feet or sufficient to irrigate 180,000 acres. From Lake McGregor a canal runs easterly for 47 miles until it reaches the western boundary of the tract to be irrigated. From this point onward the canal is tapped by sub-canals. The main canal is carried across the Bow River by a syphon and fifteen miles farther east another reservoir has been provided and a canal system constructed for the land in the Suffield district. The scheme when completed will have water to supply 200,000 acres and is estimated to cost \$10,000,000.

As already pointed out, irrigation by individuals was never successful and it was realized very early in the settlement of Southern Alberta, that irrigation works, if not undertaken by a strong corporation, would have to be undertaken as a municipal or community project. As far back as 1884, the year in which the North West Irrigation Act was passed by the Parliament of Canada, the North West Assembly passed the Irrigation Ordinance. This was a measure to enable settlers in any given area, which was capable of being irrigated, to form themselves into an irrigation district. The Ordinance was amended and consolidated in 1898 and again in 1915 and in 1920 by the Legislative Assembly of Alberta. The main features of the original legislation have been preserved in all these ordinances and Acts. An irrigation district is formed after a petition signed by a majority of the owners representing not less than half of the total area of the land affected and a vote is taken in which two-thirds of those voting favor formation of an irrigation district in the area concerned. The management is placed in the hands of a Board of Trustees who are constituted by the Act, a body corporate having power to make by-laws, construct works in accordance with the Dominion Irrigation Act, make assessments, raise loans and issue bonds for which the lands irrigated are a first security. By the Act of 1920 an Irrigation Council was created to advise the trustees of any district on the financial and engineering problems involved. But debentures must be approved by the Provincial Treasurer. The expenditure of the proceeds of the sales of debentures, contracts for the construction of irrigation works and rates of assessment must be approved by the Irrigation Council.

The first mutual or municipal undertaking under the North West District Irrigation Ordinance was projected in 1896 by the settlers of the Springback district, a tract of country west of Calgary lying between the Bow and the Elbow rivers. A canal 36 miles long was planned to convey sufficient water from the Elbow River to irrigate 21,000 acres. In addition it was proposed to construct another canal to utilize the waters of the Jumping Pound Creek to irrigate 20,000 acres more. Only about ten

miles of this system was ever constructed. The completion of the scheme was prevented by disagreements among the residents and a succession of wet seasons which strengthened the opinion that irrigation was unnecessary. The wet years from 1900 to 1907 had a deterrent effect upon irrigation development, especially upon small schemes, but the return of a cycle of dry years beginning with 1909 and 1910 re-kindled a warm interest in the subject. This point illustrates the difficulties in promoting irrigation in a semi-arid country like the basin of the South Saskatchewan. In wet years the farmers see no need for irrigation and conclude the investment thereon is wasted. As soon as the dry years recur they swing to the opposite opinion. This was to be expected in the initial stages of settlement, but the collection and tabulation of rainfall records over a long series of years, gives the farmers reliable data upon which to base conclusions as to the value of irrigation. Since 1883 such records have been kept up by the Meteorological Service of Canada and they indicate a regular alternation of dry with wet years.

In 1908 the Dominion Government established an Experimental Farm at Lethbridge in the semi-arid region. Half of the farm is irrigated while upon the other half, dry farming methods are resorted to. Accurate data kept for eleven years from 1908 to the end of 1918 has shown that the crops obtained from the irrigated portion of the farm were increased over the dry farming portion as follows: Wheat, 77 per cent; Oats, 53 per cent; Barley, 81 per cent; Potatoes, 105 per cent. These results have had a great influence upon the farmers of Southern Alberta and their attitude towards irrigation. Under dry farming methods it was found necessary to summer fallow to conserve the moisture of two years to get one crop. Thus twice the area of land was required. Dry farming also limited the farmer to grain crops and placed him at a disadvantage in growing live stock. By irrigating he could rotate his crops continuously and be assured of an abundant crop of timothy and alfalfa.

In 1910 the settlers in the vicinity of Iron Springs district north of the City of Lethbridge, petitioned the Department of the Interior for the construction of irrigation works to pump water from the Old Man River. The proposal was found impracticable. The Government, however, continued a survey of the district in 1913. This survey developed the fact that several detached tracts, comprising in all about 100,000 acres could be irrigated at a probable cost of from \$18 to \$20 per acre by diversion of water from the Old Man River. The reconnaissance of the area was completed in 1918. By that time the cost of labour and material had risen to such a peak that the cost of irrigation was estimated between \$40 and \$50 per acre. The district was organized into irrigation districts under the Alberta District Irrigation Act and a strong appeal was made to the Dominion and Provincial Governments to give financial guarantees for the construction of the necessary irrigation works. The Dominion Government refused to advance money directly but promised to find the

money at a low rate of interest and loan the same to the Provincial Government if it desired to undertake the construction of the works.

In 1920 the Provincial Government undertook to guarantee bonds for the construction of irrigation works in this district in any two years of the debenture period. The trustees of the district were unable to sell the bonds with such a guarantee and finally the Alberta Government warranted a full guarantee of the irrigation bonds of this district in the Session of 1921. The success of the scheme is now assured and active development is in progress.

In 1915 the farmers between Chin Coulee and Taber created the Taber Irrigation District. It was the first district to be erected under the Alberta District Irrigation Act. They appealed to the Canadian Pacific Railway to make the surveys and construct the works. The Company agreed and the surveys were completed that season. Financial difficulties, however, arose because the district comprised some 8,000 acres of irrigable school lands which could not be pledged for the cost of irrigation. After protracted negotiations between the Alberta and Dominion Governments, an Act was passed by the Parliament of Canada whereby school lands in the Taber Irrigation district could be dealt with as if they were patented lands. Thereupon construction proceeded and the works were completed in 1920. The water is taken from the C. P. R. Reservoir at Chin Coulee. The cost was \$16.00 per acre with a water rental of 50 cents per acre at the head gates.

Other projects are in development. The policy of the Alberta Government in guaranteeing irrigation bonds will ensure a considerable expansion in the area under irrigation. Several irrigation districts are formed, upon which construction will follow in due course. They are as follows: United Irrigation District, west of Cardston, comprising 25,000 acres; Sundial, Retlow and Lomond District, which is intended to irrigate 100,000 acres; South Macleod Irrigation District, already formed with an irrigable area of 50,000 acres; Lone Rock District, 8,000 acres; Medicine Hat District, 15,000 acres; Lethbridge Southeastern district, 300,000 acres.

Summing up the actual result of 20 years of irrigation in Alberta we have the following result:

C. P. R. Lethbridge Extension, 130,000 acres, mileage of main canals, 230 miles, total cost, \$2,000,000; C. P. R. Western section, 223,226 irrigable acres, mileage of canals, 1,600 miles, cost \$4,500,000; C. P. R. Eastern section irrigable area, 440,000 acres, mileage of main canals, 2,500 miles, cost \$10,000,000.

Canada Land and Irrigation Co., 220,640 acres irrigable, mileage of canals, 308 miles, cost, \$6,000,000; smaller projects numbering 660, comprising 113,867 acres, including project of a half section or more, cost \$1,000,000.

CHAPTER XXI.

MINING INDUSTRY IN ALBERTA.

Next to agriculture mining is the most important industry in Alberta. It is particularly associated with coal and natural gas. Gold has been found in paying quantities in the gravels of the North Saskatchewan River. Other minerals such as galena, lead, gypsum, have been found but not in any quantity.

Alberta contains 85 per cent of the coal deposits of Canada and 18 per cent of the coal deposits of the world. An exhaustive study of the Alberta coal fields has been made by Dr. G. M. Dawson, R. G. McConnell, J. B. Tyrell, and D. B. Dowling of the Geological Survey of Canada. Their work shows the geological structure and areal distribution of the measures. The coal is found in three horizons distributed from the summit of the Rocky Mountains eastward over the entire prairie region to Manitoba and from the International Boundary Line to the Mackenzie River. Each horizon produces coal of different qualities depending upon its age and distance from the mountains. The three coal horizons are as follows:

- (1) Kootenay (Early Cretaceous).
- (2) Belly River.
- (3) Edmonton (at the top of the Cretaceous).

Kootenay Formation:—The Kootenay coals in Alberta are generally exposed in narrow bands in the mountains. These are here numerated in order from the south:

Coleman area is estimated at 35 square miles, with 38 feet of coal in the section, giving an estimated content of 1,050,000,000 tons.

Blairmore-Frank area is irregular in shape, and broken by faults and folds; but assuming for it an area of 90 square miles with an estimated thickness of 50 feet of coal, its total content is estimated at 4,500,000,000 tons.

Livingstone area lies north of Blairmore, and west of the Livingstone range of mountains. The area containing coal approximates 343 square miles. A maximum estimate of its coal reserve is 26,000,000,000 tons.

Moose Mountain area, lying outside the first range of the Rocky Mountains, consists of a narrow band encircling this outlying mountain. It extends from near the main line of the Canadian Pacific railway, south to Sheep Creek. Its area is estimated at 12 square miles, with a thickness of 15 feet of coal in the section. This would give a probable coal content for the area of 200,000,000 tons.

Cascade area is a long strip between the ranges, containing workable seams for about 40 miles of its length. It is estimated to contain about 760,000,000 tons of anthracite, and of the softer grades 2,100,000,000 tons.

Palliser area, on Panther River, is comparatively small, but with an area of perhaps six square miles has, possibly, a coal content of 30,000,000 tons.

Costigan area lies east of Palliser, and is estimated in 12 square miles to possibly contain 90,000,000 tons—mostly bituminous coal.

Bighorn area, between the Saskatchewan and Brazeau rivers, is estimated at 60 square miles, with a content of at least 1,400,000,000 tons.

Belly River Formation:—The coals that belong to this horizon, grade generally between lignite and bituminous, and are found over an enormous area. Roughly measured on the map, this area is about 25,000 square miles. An estimate on this basis would, however, be very misleading, since portions are known to be either unproductive, or to contain only small seams of inferior coal; 5,000 square miles might be assumed as being reasonably valuable. Four feet of coal underlying this area would furnish 13,000,000,000 tons. Most of the productive value is in Alberta. The amounts contained in the two provinces, respectively, may be estimated at 189,000,000,000 for Alberta; and 33,000,000,000 for Saskatchewan.

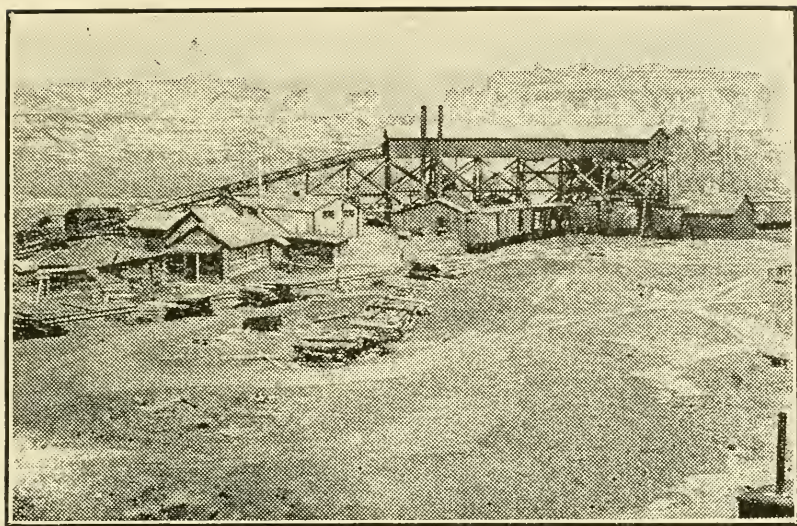
The Edmonton Formation (Area in Alberta):—The coals of this formation are generally lignites; but in the foothills grade up to bituminous. The foothill areas, though but narrow bands, have a length of about 400 miles and may have an exposed area of possibly 52,000 square miles. This has been estimated to have possibly 800,900,000,000 tons as a total content, half of which is sub-bituminous coal.

The total coal reserves of the province are by careful estimation of the Geological Survey of Canada as follows:

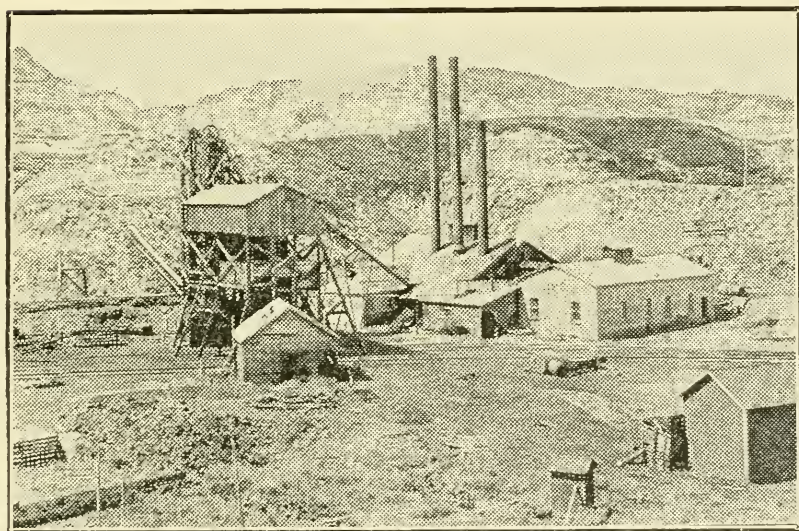
Anthracite, 769,000,000 tons; Bituminous, 44,677,000,000 tons; Sub-Bituminous and lignite, 1,014,129,000,000 tons.

Exposures of coal are so frequent in Alberta that mention is made of this fact by most of the early explorers. The earliest mention of coal in the North-West is probably by Sir Alexander Mackenzie in 1789 of a coal seam on the Great Bear River in the Mackenzie Valley. The beds were then on fire and were still on fire when Sir John Richardson passed them in 1848. Mackenzie states that a narrow strip of marshy, boggy ground, producing coal and bitumen runs along the eastern base of the Rocky Mountains, and he specifies the latitude—52 degrees north, longitude 112½ degrees west on the southern branch of the Saskatchewan River; latitude 56 degrees north, longitude 116 degrees west in the Peace River, as places where coal beds are exposed.

The earliest discovery of coal in Alberta is shown on Arrowsmith's maps, 1801, and 1811. These maps trace the journey of Peter Fidler, as we have already learned in 1792 to Southern Alberta. At the mouth



OLD NEWCASTLE MINE, DRUMHELLER, FIRST SHIPPING MINE



ALBERTA COAL MINE, DRUMHELLER

of Rosebud Creek and in the vicinity of the present coal mining centre of Drumheller, Fidler notes "great quantities of coals." David Thompson mentions collecting bushels of coal on the North Saskatchewan after high water, and in 1800 he discovered a bed of "pure coal" about 100 yards below the Rocky Mountain House which was used by the blacksmith of the Fort with excellent results. Alexander Henry, in his journey down the Saskatchewan in 1811, mentions the great seam at Goose Encampment, which he estimated at 30 feet in thickness.

Gabriel Franchere, who descended the Athabaska in May, 1814, mentions several veins of bituminous coal out-cropping between the Mountain House and the mouth of the Pembina River. His party "tried some and found it to burn well."

The coal at Edmonton was noted by Sir George Simpson in 1841. He mentions a seam 10 feet thick running for a considerable distance along both sides of the river. This coal was used by the blacksmith of the Fort and would have been used in the stoves at the Fort but for the want of proper grates. Ten years later Sir John Richardson obtained specimens from Edmonton and considered them to be of the same horizon as the coal on the Mackenzie River.

Father De Smet mentions coal in Alberta in his trip over the Rocky Mountains in 1845. Sir James Hector, who wintered at Edmonton in 1858, described the coals he saw there and on the Red Deer River. In 1859 he discovered coal on the Athabasca, and on the Pembina along the present line of the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway, and thought it was of the same coal-bearing strata he had observed on the Saskatchewan and the Red Deer rivers. The seams at Edmonton were also examined by Capt. Thomas Blakiston, who accompanied Captain Palliser and Dr. Hector on this expedition. Captain Blakiston thought the beds at Edmonton extended up the river as far as Rocky Mountain House.

Lord Milton and Dr. Cheadle observed a bed of coal fifteen feet to twenty feet thick on the Pembina. Sir Sanford Fleming and Dr. Grant who crossed the country in 1872 referred in their report to the coals of Edmonton and Pembina.

In 1873 Dr. Selwyn descended the North Saskatchewan and recorded in great detail the coal seams on this river. This is the first report by an officer of the Canadian government.

Discoveries in the Southern part of the province along the International Boundary were made when the boundary was surveyed in 1875. Coal seams at Blackfoot Crossing were recorded by Professor Macoun in 1879.

It was not until the construction of the C. P. R. that coal mining became an industry of commercial importance. The building of the railway through the Mountains led to the discovery of coal near Banff in 1888; on the Cascade River, opposite the present Bankhead mines. Soon after, coal was discovered at Anthracite. The mines at Canmore were opened

in 1888. Coal mining commenced at Medicine Hat in 1883 and at Lethbridge in 1886.

The development of the industry in the Edmonton district followed closely upon the growth of settlement. Shipment commenced when the Calgary and Edmonton railway was built into Strathcona in 1891.

The construction of the Crowsnest Branch of the C. P. R. in 1899 opened up what has proved to be the largest producer of any field in the province up to the present time. The fields along the upper reaches of the Athabaska and its tributaries were developed as soon as the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway and the Canadian Northern Railway reached the Yellowhead Pass. Shipping began from this field in 1911.

About the same year the Drumheller field was brought in by the projection of the C. N. R. eastward from Calgary towards Saskatoon.

There are now 12,500 men employed in the coal mines of Alberta compared with 2,800 in 1906. The growth of the industry is indicated by a comparison of the production in five year periods since 1900 as follows:

1900	-----	311,450 tons
1905	-----	931,917 tons
1910	-----	2,894,469 tons
1915	-----	3,360,818 tons
1920	-----	6,908,923 tons

The value of the annual output at the present time is over \$30,000,000. Over \$14,000,000 is paid in wages.

In the early stages of the industry, primitive methods of handling coal were naturally used, but within the last ten years a great improvement along these lines has been made. Except in small out-of-the-way mines, modern plants are used and the best and safest methods are employed, while greater attention is being paid to the preparation or grading of coal for the market.

The Coal Mines Act of Alberta secures a large measure of government regulation over this industry. Various commissioners have been appointed by the Government of Alberta to ascertain the best methods to ensure justice to the miners and the operators. In 1906 a commission was appointed to investigate conditions re hours of labor, wages and other phases of the industry. In the year 1908 legislation was passed limiting the hours of work below the ground to eight hours per day.

A second commission investigated the conditions surrounding the industry in 1912. As a result of its labors a revised Coal Mines Act was passed by the legislature in the session of 1913. Improvements concerned the handling of explosives, the use of electricity, and the qualification of operatives responsible for the safety of the miners.

Again in 1919 the coal industry was the subject of further inquiry by a Government Commission representing the Government of Alberta, the miners, the operators and organized labor. This commission advised an extension of markets in order to ensure a greater output of the mines,

and steady employment for the miners. At present the mines are operated little more than half time, resulting in dissatisfaction among the workers and increasing the cost of production. Shortage of railway cars, and misrepresentation in the size and quality of coal have led to a restriction of the market in places where Alberta coal comes into competition with American coal. Notwithstanding the number and splendid equipment of the Alberta mines over 2½ million tons of coal are imported annually into the territory that should be supplied wholly by Alberta mines. Freight rates on prairie lines are a contributing factor, as well as the unfamiliarity of eastern consumers with the qualities of Alberta coals. Last year the Government of Alberta appointed a trade commissioner, Mr. Howard Stutchbury, and a Combustion Engineer, Mr. M. L. Hyde, to prove the splendid qualities of our coals. The mines of Alberta have an equipment sufficient to double their output, if an adequate market can be found.

Particular attention is paid by the Government in its supervision of the mines to the quality of explosives and the method of shot-firing. Only explosives which are on the "British Permitted List" are used in the bituminous and anthracite mines, and all shots are fired by means of electric batteries, managed by duly certified shot-firers, whether gas has been found or not.

In 1912 the Government established Mine Rescue stations in different parts of the province. An official is appointed to each station to instruct those interested in the use of life saving apparatus and to conduct practical tests of exploring mines in order that life-saving corps may be prepared for any emergency that may arise. Railway cars with complete rescue apparatus are kept in every important mining centre in readiness to be hurried to the scene of any disaster.

Since 1905 six hundred mines have been opened in Alberta. Of this number 276 are now in operation. Consequently 324 or 64% have been abandoned. During the same period it is estimated that 100,485,000 tons of coal have been affected. Of this amount 47,228,000 tons have been extracted, thus leaving over 53,000,000 tons, one half of which is lost beyond recovery. The total investment in mining properties since 1903 is placed at 37,110,775 of which \$9,813,500 or 26% was invested in the mines that have been abandoned.

There have been two serious mine disasters in the history of the industry. The first occurred on December 10th at Bellevue in a mine operated by the West Canadian Collieries. Thirty-one men lost their lives due to an explosion of gas caused, it is supposed, by a cave of the roof.

The second disaster was one of the most terrible in the history of the Dominion. It occurred at the Hillcrest Collieries on June 19, 1914. At the time of the disaster 235 men were in the mine. Of those 189 perished. Judge A. H. Carpenter of the Bench of Alberta conducted a judicial inquiry into the cause of the calamity. The conclusion of the investigation was "That the disaster was caused by an explosion of gas, the origin and

seat of which is unascertainable, this explosion being augmented by the ignition of dust throughout the mine." Both disasters occurred at nine o'clock in the morning.

Since 1905 there have been 481 fatal accidents in the mines of Alberta including the victims of the two disasters at Bellevue and Hillcrest. Every 100,000 tons of coal produced in the last fifteen years has cost a human life.

An important and far-reaching action in the development of mining industries was begun by the Government of Alberta two years ago when preliminary research work was instituted with a view to ascertaining more definite knowledge of the occurrence, extent and economic value of the minerals of the province. This movement was due to the initiative of Hon. J. L. Cote, Provincial Secretary of Alberta. Experiments were made with the bituminous sands along the Athabasca below Fort McMurray. The salt springs in the Slave River Valley, west of Fort Fitzgerald were examined, and a reconnaissance of the geological structure of the country along the coal branch of the G. T. P., west of Edmonton.

The success of these experiments led to the formation of a Scientific and Industrial Research Council, January 6, 1921. This Council was composed of *Hon. J. L. Cote, (Chairman), Dr. H. M. Tory, Professor J. A. Allan, Professor N. C. Pitcher, and J. T. Stirling (Chief Inspector of Mines). The research work is to be conducted at the University of Alberta where special laboratories have been provided.

*Since August, 1921, Hon. Herbert Greenfield has been chairman.

NATURAL GAS, OIL AND ASPHALT.

The occurrence of bitumen, natural gas, and oil has long been known along a portion of the Athabasca River, having been commented on by Sir John Richardson in 1823, by Professor John Macoun in 1875 and by Dr. Robert Bell in 1882. In 1890 Mr. R. G. McConnell of the Geological Survey of Canada made a careful examination of the Athabasca and Peace rivers and the country lying between, particularly for oil and gas. Following this report the Dominion Government bored for oil at Athabasca Landing. Work was commenced in 1894 and continued at intervals until 1896. It was anticipated that the sandstones containing the oil would be found at 1,800 feet deep. A test hole of 1,770 feet was made, but owing to the incoherent character of the rocks, and the unexpected thickness of the overlying cretaceous strata the boring was discontinued. Traces of gas were found at various depths. At 245 feet the gas threw the water in the borehole over the derrick. Another flow at 334 feet was so strong that the roar was heard half a mile away. The experiment was inconclusive and another boring was made at Pelican River about 100 miles farther down the river where the petroliferous sandstone is estimated to be about 700 feet below the surface. Work was commenced in 1897. The

"tar sands" were reached at 750 feet. The boring was continued 70 feet below this point. "Maltha or heavy petroleum was met with, saturating the sands and shales in a manner similar to that found in the same lower Cretaceous beds where they out-crop naturally farther down the Athabasca. At 820 feet an exceedingly heavy flow of natural gas under great pressure was struck, such as to prevent further work in the hole." (Geol. Survey Rept. 1898.)

A well was also drilled at Victoria on the North Saskatchewan River about 100 miles below Edmonton in 1898. Next year boring was continued until a depth of 1,840 feet was reached. Little gas was found, and operations were abandoned for the same cause as that found at Athabasca Landing.

Up to the present time no development of an important character has been done at Victoria or at Athabasca Landing. At Pelican River a number of wells have been drilled by private parties, and the results seem to indicate gas in economic quantity.

The greatest natural gas field yet discovered in Alberta is located in Southeastern Alberta, around the city of Medicine Hat and the town of Bow Island, 41 miles west of the latter place on the Crowsnest Pass branch of the C. P. R. It was first discovered in 1883 at Langevin on the main line of the C. P. R. in drilling for water. Two wells were sunk, the first to a depth of 1,155 feet, the second 1,426 feet. A flow of 50,000 cubic feet per day was obtained in the second well. Gas was found in a similar manner at Cassels.

About 1898 the city of Medicine Hat drilled a number of wells to a depth of 700 feet and found gas. The wells did not produce more than 700,000 cubic feet per day. The old wells were deepened and new ones drilled to 1,000 feet where an enormous flow of gas was tapped. In 1912 the City had 12 wells yielding each 3,000,000 cubic feet per day and registering a pressure of 585 pounds per square inch. The City is piped and the gas utilized for heat, light and power purposes. The street lights are kept burning all day and all night. A well at Dunmore four miles from Medicine Hat gave a pressure of 600 pounds.

The greatest flow of gas was found at Bow Island. One well (Old Glory) has a capacity of 8,865,000 cubic feet per day and registered 810 pounds pressure. It is one of a series of wells used by the Canada Western Natural Gas, Light, Heat and Power Co, Ltd. to supply the towns of Southern Alberta with natural gas.

Gas has also been found at several other points in the province, notably at Tofield, Vegreville, Castor, Wetaskiwin and Morinville. In 1914 gas in economic quantities was discovered at Viking, 73 miles east of Edmonton. The discovery indicates a large field. Since 1914 ten wells have been drilled in the Viking field, the ten wells registering a total open flow of 48,000,000 cubic feet per day, and an average rock pressure of 800 lbs. per square inch. The field has been piped to supply the City of Edmonton.

OIL.

Oil has not been found in Alberta at any point in economic quantity up to the present time, but the indications of its presence at various places have induced a great many prospectors to take the field and considerable sums have been spent in boring. Like natural gas, oil is suspected to occur over a wide area.

"The Cretaceous rocks which underlie almost the whole of Alberta have as their basal member, where exposed on the plains, the Dakota sandstone, a porous rock suitable for oil. It in turn, along its exposed borders at least, rests upon the Devonian, and is over-lain by shales that would form an impervious cover which might retain any oil that found its way into the Dakota sands." (Geol. Survey Rept. 1909). The stratigraphy of Alberta and of the country north to the Lower Mackenzie Valley is not unlike that south of the international boundary line. Similar structures prevail southward to the Gulf of Mexico. The discovery of many productive wells in Texas, Oklahoma, Wyoming and more recently in Montana close to the Alberta border, has stimulated field investigations in different parts of the Province.

The Dakota sands are exposed along the Athabasca and other places in Northern Alberta. They are charged with tar to the extent of 12 per cent of the whole mass. The tar represents the residue of petroleum which has escaped along the exposure. Small quantities of petroleum are still escaping. McConnell in his report of the Athabasca in 1893 estimates the tar sands at 1,000 square miles, and the total content at 4,700,000,000 tons. No doubt a great quantity of oil has escaped but it is altogether improbable that this process has gone on indefinitely and that all the oil has been drained off. "That the distribution of oil is probably extensive is indicated by the finding of tar in the sands near the surface, far to the south, in the Edmonton country, apparently formed by the limited escape of oil from minor fractures in the rocks. Oil Seepages also occur in South-western Alberta, in South Kootenay Pass and the Flathead Valley." (Geol. Survey Rept. 1909.) Since McConnell's report of 1893 a great deal of exploration of the tar sand deposits along the Athabaska River has been made, notably by Mr. S./C. Ells, of the Department of Mines of Canada, and it is known now that an area of at least 15,000 square miles is underlain by this formation. The thickness of the formation varies from 125 feet to 225 feet. Dr. T. O. Bosworth, Chief Geologist of the Imperial Oil Company, Limited, speaking at an Industrial Congress held in Edmonton in 1919, made the following statement:

"In the district of McMurray on the Athabaska River we have the largest natural exposure of oil in the world. It is interesting to consider the amount of oil in this territory. For this purpose we will suppose the area to be 15,000 square miles, the average thickness 50 feet and the average yield to be 10 gallons per ton. A simple calculation gives the

result as 30,000 million barrels of oil. This is an immense quantity—it is six hundred times the world's annual production.”

Considerable prospecting has been done for oil in Southern Alberta at Oil Creek, the Old Man River and Okotoks. A number of wells have been drilled. One, 1,120 feet deep is stated to have yielded at the outset 300 barrels per day, and another 1,170 feet is estimated to be capable of producing 25 barrels per day.

The Imperial Oil Co. of Canada discovered oil at Fort Norman 1,800 miles north of Edmonton in August, 1920. Little information as to the quantity and known possibilities of this field have yet been made known. The discovery, however, has been sufficient to compel the government to issue regulations to control development and provide for the administration of justice, and the filing and developing of claims. Hundreds of claims have been taken up by prospectors in close proximity to the holdings of the Imperial Oil Co. and the summer of 1921 will witness the invasion of hundreds more. Thousands of dollars are being spent at the present writing in preparing means of transportation by steamers, gasoline boats and aeroplanes. The first aeroplane to reach the Mackenzie landed at Fort Simpson, March 28, 1921.

Since 1921 most of the prospecting and drilling for oil in Alberta has taken place in what is known as the Edmonton-Wainwright Field. Late in 1921 the Imperial Oil commenced drilling at Fabyan. At 2,727 feet oil and gas were found. Two more wells were drilled by the British Petroleum (Ltd.) in 1923, one of which produced 200 barrels of fluid oil per day.

ASPHALT.

At numerous points along the Athabasca River and particularly at Fort McMurray the “tar sand” deposit or asphalt softens under the sun's heat and flows down in great masses below. At a temperature of about 60 degrees Fahrenheit it has the consistency of hard cheese and may be cut into blocks. So much of the asphalt has flowed down and such great masses have accumulated at various points that a hard crust composed of sand and moss has formed over the surface. Holes are cut in the crust and the tar or asphalt collected in barrels by means of wooden spatulas. It is used in the North by the Hudson's Bay Company and the mission stations, for covering boats and roofs and there is no doubt that it will eventually be used as pavements, and insulating material on a large scale when railway communication is established to this point.

SALT.

A few miles north of the Alberta boundary occur the famous salt springs of the North on Salt River, which flows into the Slave River. The basins of the springs are encrusted with a deposit of salt of excellent

quality. From this source the people of the Mackenzie Valley have secured their salt supply for years. Recent borings have proved enormous salt beds at a depth of about 600 feet at Fort McMurray.

GOLD.

On all the rivers running eastward from the Rocky mountains to the international boundary where prospecting has been done, gold has been found, but in the form of such fine scales, and particles so minute as to require the employment of mercury in order to collect the same.

The North Saskatchewan has, hitherto, been by far the most important river upon which gold mining operations have been carried on, and is the only one which has offered a continuous and considerable output of gold. The length of the river upon which work has been found to pay under favorable conditions, is about 120 miles with Edmonton as a centre. Up to 1898 gold washing had been performed almost entirely by hand, or, with the aid of very antiquated appliances. Subsequently dredges were introduced, but judging from results, these do not seem to have proved very successful, as the gold output has materially diminished. In 1895, 1896 and 1897 as much as \$50,000 per annum is reported to have been received from the Saskatchewan district.

CHAPTER XXII.

LABOR, TRADE UNIONISM, INDUSTRIAL UNIONISM AND LABOR LEGISLATION.

It is purposed to deal with the subject in this chapter under the heads of Legislation, Organization, Wages, Strikes and Industrial Disputes.

LEGISLATION.

Labor is a subject over which both the Federal and Provincial governments exercise control, each within the limits assigned by the Constitution. In this chapter particular attention will be given to those laws passed by the Territorial and Provincial authorities.

At the time of the transfer of Rupert's Land and Northwestern Territory in 1870, the laws of England were in force in those regions. In order to avoid a conflict of laws, the Dominion Parliament expressly enacted in 1886 (49 Vict., c. 25) that the laws of England as they existed on July 15, 1870, were to be in force as far as applicable to the Territories except as the same had been repealed or altered at the passing of the Act or would thereafter be repealed or altered by the Parliament of Great Britain, the Parliament of Canada, or the acts and ordinances of the Legislative Assembly of the North West Territories or any province created out of the said Territories. This law, of course, affected labor and the law of England as it existed on July 15, 1870, except as the same had been repealed or modified, applied to the workers of the Territories. Consequently, many of the rigorous doctrines of the Common Law were in force in Western Canada. Very soon, however, the North West Council and later the Assembly of the Territories began giving attention to special legislation dealing with the rights and the protection of the workers along the same lines and often in advance of the labor legislation of the older provinces of Canada. This legislation may be rightly divided into enactments respecting wages, protection of workmen in the course of their employment, hours of labor, female and child labor, and compensation for loss of life or injuries sustained in the course of employment.

With respect to wages, many laws have been passed with the intention of securing for the workmen the wages they have earned. The first was a clause in the Master and Servants Ordinance passed in 1873. This ordinance embodied the exact terms of the Act passed by the Legislature

of Manitoba in 1871. In 1879 a new law on this subject was passed by the North West Council. The law has been amended from time to time to contain practically the same terms as the original ordinance. As it stands today, contracts for personal service for periods of more than one year shall be in writing. The penalty for violation on the part of servants is a fine not exceeding \$30.00 or imprisonment not exceeding one month. On the other hand, the ordinance provides a summary method for the collection of wages by a servant from an unjust employer and protection against illegal discharge.

A Mechanics Lien Law was first enacted in 1884. In 1906 the law was revised and many features introduced for the benefit of workmen. The principle of giving liens to the workman upon the works, buildings or material they help to produce was extended to cover threshers in 1895, threshers' employees 1913, woodmen, 1913. These laws were largely the result of western conditions. In harvest time there is annually a great influx of temporary labor from the eastern provinces to take off the harvest and assist in threshing. A great deal of work is done at various times of the year in the unsettled areas, such as cutting logs and lumber. The workmen come from all parts of the country. They have no homes here and unless they are promptly paid, or unless their wages are secured, suffering and injustice would in many instances be caused by either dishonesty, carelessness or insolvency of their employers. The various lien acts make the wages of the workman or mechanic a first charge upon the product of his labor. In 1886 the directors of companies were made liable to clerks, laborers and servants for six months' wages and when the Winding Up Ordinance was passed in 1903, three months' wages of clerks, laborers and servants was made a preferred claim. Claims for wages or salaries in excess of this amount rank as ordinary debts. Similar provisions were embodied in the Preferential Assignments Act of 1907 and the Creditors Relief Act of 1910. A fair wage law has been in force since 1907 on all railway contracts upon lines subsidized by the Provincial and Dominion Governments.

A minimum wage in shops and factories and offices was imposed in 1917 by the Factories Act, of \$1.50 per shift for all persons and \$1.00 per shift for apprentices. Since 1893 a minor may sue for wages in the same way as if of full age. With respect to attaching wages and salaries, all provincial civil servants are under a special law which gives the Provincial Treasurer the powers of a judge to determine the applications of a creditor and to withhold and to pay over to the creditor the debt claimed.

The beginning of the coal industry rendered it necessary to have legislation regulating conditions of workmen in and about the mines. The first legislation was enacted in 1893 but with the growth of the coal mining industry the law has been changed at various times, viz., 1898, 1906, 1913 and 1920, to meet new conditions and to grant increased provisions



CANADIAN PACIFIC RAILROAD
BUILDING, EDMONTON



MCLEOD BLOCK, EDMONTON



TEGLER BUILDING, EDMONTON

for safety. Several commissions have been appointed and the conditions surrounding coal mines in Alberta thoroughly investigated. Representatives of the mine owners, miners and the public have sat on these commissions and it may be said at the present time, the law is as satisfactory as it is possible for all interests to devise.

The Provincial Railway Act contains many provisions for the safety of railway employees in the construction of bridges, tunnels, the operation of trains and the use of safety appliances. The Act gives the Minister of Railways large powers for enforcing the law and the regulations.

The Factory Act of 1917 provides for guarding machinery in accordance with regulations prescribed by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council. Coal oil, gas, or any explosive or inflammable material must be stored so as to avoid accidents as far as possible. Other provisions of the Act deal with safety of hoists, elevators, the prevention of fire in such a way as to reduce the probability of accidents and loss of life to the lowest possible minimum.

Proper sanitation in factories, shops and offices is provided for by the Factory Act and Public Health Act. Steam boilers are regularly inspected by Government inspectors and no one is allowed to operate an engine without a Government certificate. The Steam Boilers Act is one of the oldest in the list of protective legislation, being enacted in 1897. Chauffeurs must be licensed.

Important acts passed in recent years that indicate the strength of organized labor are "The Act for the Protection of Persons Employed in the Construction of Buildings and Excavations 1913"; "Act for the Protection of Electrical Workers 1917"; and the "Act for the Protection of Employees of Public Utilities 1915."

HOURS.

The hours of labor have been the subject of much discussion in labor circles and in the Legislature within the last few years. One of the first enactments on this subject was contained in the Municipal Ordinance of the North West Territories in 1897 in which powers were given to municipalities to pass by-laws enforcing early closing hours in wholesale and retail shops and stores or other places where a mercantile business was carried on. Greater importance was given to the law on this subject by the Early Closing Act of 1912 applicable to towns and cities of not less than 1,000 inhabitants. But of later years the Act has been made applicable to all towns and villages. The early closing hour is limited to 6 p. m. except one day in the week which must not be earlier than 12 o'clock noon. In 1908 the hours for coal miners working underground were limited by a special Act, to eight hours per day. The Factory Act 1917 and amendments provide that the hours of labor for any person during a day shift shall not be earlier than 7 a. m. nor later than 6 p. m.,

and that a night shift shall not exceed eight hours. One hour is allowed to a workman at noon and since 1909 every employee may leave his work any time between 12 o'clock and 3 o'clock on polling day for the purpose of recording his vote, without deduction of time by his employer.

Child and female labor in mines has been prohibited since 1898. Boys under 12 years and women or girls of any age may not be employed underground in any mine. The Children's Protection Act passed in 1909 and amended in 1912 prohibits the employment of young children in street trades such as express or despatch messengers, vendors of newspapers or small wares and bootblacks, unless such children have the written authority of their parents or guardians. Such children are not permitted to carry on any street trade after 8 p. m. in the months of December, January or February or after 9 p. m. or during school hours throughout the rest of the year. Employment of children under the age of fourteen years during school hours is sternly prohibited except in certain circumstances to be decided by competent officials under the Truancy Act.

In 1919 the Legislature of Alberta abolished private employment bureaus and established a Government Employment Bureau to act as a clearing house and to provide facilities for finding employment and for distributing male and female labor throughout the province. This law was enacted as a co-ordinating measure with the Federal law on the same subject passed in 1920.

Compensation for workmen or employees injured or killed in the course of their employment is now largely governed by the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1920. Previous to any legislation on this subject, the law of England, as far as applicable, was in force, consequently that antiquated and barbarous maxim of the Common Law, viz., that the right of action for injuries sustained by workmen is terminated by the death of either party, was a part of our law. The rigor of this law was to some extent mitigated by an Ordinance passed in 1884 entitled "An Ordinance respecting Compensation to the families of persons killed by accidents." This law conferred a right of action on the wife, husband, parent or child whose death had been caused by the wrongful act or neglect of another, if commenced within twelve months from the death of the deceased person (R. O. 1888, c. 55).

Another doctrine of the Common Law in force in the Territories was that of common employment. By the old rule as it stood until 1900 a workman could not make his master or employer responsible for injuries due to the negligence or wrongful act of a fellow servant, but in that year the Legislative Assembly of the North West Territories passed an ordinance abolishing this doctrine in the Territories and from that date negligence of a fellow workman is not a defence in an action for tort against an employer or a master. The most important legislation on this subject is found in the Compensation Act of Alberta. The Act was first passed in 1908, largely through the influence of the Hon. C. W. Cross, the

first Attorney-General of the Province. The principles of the Act were novel to the employers of the Province and were strenuously opposed by many employers. Gradually, however, the justice and humanity of the new law was recognized by the majority of the employers, and an equitable compensation law is now regarded as indispensable in any proper social system. The Act was revised and enlarged in 1918 to bring it more in harmony with conditions that have developed with the industrial growth of the Province during the last decade.

The Workmen's Compensation Act of 1908, the provisions of which were extended by the Compensation Act of 1918, introduced a wholly new principle which is really in the direction of compulsory assurance, the primary liability being placed on the industry in which the workman is engaged. The duty created is a new statutory one, a duty which is wholly independent of any wrong-doing or negligence by the employer, but is made by statute part of every contract of employment to which the Act applies.

ORGANIZATION.

As in the other provinces of Canada, organizations for regulations between workmen and masters or for imposing restrictive conditions on the conduct of any trade or business, have been authorized since the first Trade Union Act of Canada passed in 1872. Any seven or more members of a trade union may, by subscribing to the rules of the union and by complying with the terms of the Trade Union Act, become registered provided the purposes of the trade union are not contrary to the laws of Canada. The fundamental unit in labor organizations is the local union made up of the craftsmen or workers in a particular trade or calling in a given community. The local union is generally attached to a larger organization having either national or international jurisdiction. In certain cases the union may have no affiliation and is independent. The local has its own officers and is directly affiliated with the central or controlling body from which it derives its charter. Most of the unions in this Province as in the other provinces of Canada, are affiliated with the American Federation of Labor and the Trades and Labor Congress of Canada. On the other hand, a few unions belong to purely national organizations such as the Federal Association of Letter Carriers, Civil Service Federation of Canada, Canadian Brotherhood of Stationary Engineers and Dominion Railway Mail Clerks Association. Some of these are affiliated with the Trades and Labor Congress of Canada or Canadian Federation of Labor. Of the 224 local unions in Alberta in 1920, 192 belonged to the American Federation of Labor or some other international central body. Twenty-nine had national affiliations only, while three were wholly independent unions. The total trade union membership reported in 1920 was 15,272.

The chief central bodies governing the activities of organized labor

are:—American Federation of Labor, the Trades and Labor Congress of Canada and the Canadian Labor Congress. The Trades and Labor Congress is largely representative of international unions in Canada, the membership being made up from the unions chartered by the American Federation. It concedes to the American Federation of Labor the authority to charter Federal unions in Canada, that is, bodies over which no central international organization exercises jurisdiction. The Congress issues charters to unions of public service employees as well as to trades and labor councils and provincial federations of labor. The American Federation of Labor recognizes the Congress as the mouthpiece of Canadian union men in dealing with legislative policies, but in respect to trade controversies and jurisdictional disputes, the American Federation has full control. The membership of the Congress is composed of: (1) Delegates from Provincial Federations, trades and labor councils and such Federal labor unions as may be granted charters; (2) delegates from local international organizations and other such locals of Canadian national or non-international as do not encroach on the jurisdiction of recognized international unions.

The Canadian Federation of Labor is a national organization whose members are not in sympathy with international unionism. It issues charters to trades councils and craft unions which apply for affiliation. It dates from 1902, first being known as the National Trades and Labor Congress. The present name was adopted in 1908. At present it comprises 15 central organizing bodies most of which have members in Alberta. The Canadian Brotherhood of Stationary Engineers and Firemen has its headquarters at Edmonton. It was formed in June, 1919, and now has nine branches in Alberta.

Between the local union and the grand central governing body like the American Federation of Labor or the Trades and Labor Congress of Canada, there are various forms of federation such as the District Council, the Provincial Federation and the Trades and Labor Council. The best known of these bodies is possibly the Trades and Labor Council. Trades and Labor Councils exist in Edmonton, Calgary, Lethbridge and Medicine Hat. They consist of delegates from the various local unions in each city and usually hold monthly or fortnightly meetings. The majority of unions in these cities are affiliated with the Trades and Labor Council and contribute to the funds of the Council a per capita assessment. The Councils are voluntary bodies and have no power to issue charters to local unions. They deal with matters of common interest to the workers of the community and have a powerful influence in moulding public opinion on many questions of civic and provincial policy.

With a view to bringing together dis-united local branch unions for the purpose of dealing collectively with matters affecting trade conditions and other affairs, a number of kindred trades have formed federations, each unit electing delegates and contributing by a per capita tax to the

funds necessary to support them. The first to be mentioned is the Alberta Federation of Labor, organized in 1912 and chartered by the Trades and Labor Congress of Canada. This Federation is made up of Trades and Labor Councils, international and national local branch unions and independent federal labor unions. Annual meetings are held at which mainly legislative matters concerning wage earners are considered. Next there are delegate bodies representing particular groups of allied occupations such as the building trades, printing trades, and railway employees. Five such bodies are in operation in Alberta, viz.: The Building Trades Committee of the Calgary Trades and Labor Council, comprising eight unions and 843 members; the Printing Trades Council of Edmonton, comprising four unions and 165 members; the Grand Trunk Railway System Federation; the Edmonton, Dunvegan & British Columbia Railway System Federation; and the Edmonton Civic Service Association.

A still closer grouping of local unions exists in the District Councils or conference boards. The jurisdiction of these bodies varies. Sometimes it is confined to one locality where two or more locals of the same craft exist. In other instances it includes all local branches of a given trade within a stated area. These district organizations are supported by the usual democratic method of trade union organization, viz., by a per capita tax on the branches comprising the membership. They deal with trade and other matters considered to be in the interests of the membership which can be better dealt with by a representative conference or board than by individual locals. There are five such councils in Alberta at the present time:

(a) Calgary Joint Carpenters District Council, two unions, 520 members.

(b) United Brotherhood of Joiners and Carpenters of Edmonton, two unions, 300 members.

(c) International Association of Machinists, 68 unions, 6,000 members.

(d) Western Canada Conference of Typographical Unions, 13 unions, 1,000 members.

(e) International Brotherhood of Steam Shovel and Dredge men, four unions, 328 members.

Among the important labor organizations operating in Alberta are those whose members are employed on the railroads and who are organized into local lodges at the various divisional points of the railway lines. These are the local brotherhood committees designed to provide delegate bodies which include grievance, adjustment, protective and legislative boards. They deal with conditions of employment, the settlement of disputes and cooperation in various ways with the railway company. The list of organizations of this class is given below separately with the names of the railroads over which the Committees exercise jurisdiction:

(1) General Adjustment Committee of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers of the Edmonton, Dunvegan and B. C. Railway.

(2) Adjustment Committee of the Railway Conductors of the Canadian National Railway lines west.

(3) Railway Conductors of the Edmonton, Dunvegan and B. C. Railway.

(4) General Grievance Committees of the Locomotive Firemen and Engine men of the Canadian Northern Railway.

(5) General Grievance Committee of the Railroad Trainmen of the Canadian Pacific Railway lines west.

(6) General Grievance Committee of the Railroad Trainmen of the Edmonton, Dunvegan and B. C. Railway.

Mention should also be made of the Miners' organizations. As the mines of Alberta are all coal mines, the Western Federation of Miners which embraces workers in metaliferous mines, are not represented in the province. The coal miners of Alberta belong to the United Mine Workers of America. This organization is essentially industrial in character and includes all workers in and around coal mines. It is administered through a system of districts, sub-districts and local branches, all of which must be chartered by the International Body, United Mine Workers of America. The Coal miners of Alberta are under the jurisdiction of district No. 18 of the United Mine Workers of America. This district was formed on November 9th, 1903 and embraces also the coal mines of the mainland of British Columbia. The first local of the United Mine Workers Association in Alberta was formed at Bellevue in June 1903.

INDUSTRIAL UNIONISM.

The labor organizations dealt with in the preceding paragraphs all represent craft unionism. There are other forms of labor organization that may be classed under the head of industrial unionism; the latter forms were formerly represented by the International Workers of the World, but in later years by what is known as the One Big Union. Industrial unionism is bitterly opposed to craft unionism and one of the most engrossing episodes in the whole history of labor in Alberta as well as in Canada, has been the struggle in the last three years between craft unions, united with the American Federation of Labor and the Trades and Labor Council of Canada, and the One Big Union. Though the din of battle is still resounding, the victory unquestionably has fallen on the banners of craft unionism. The membership of the One Big Union has steadily declined since it reached the peak in 1919.

The International Workers of the World began to operate in Canada in 1906 and during the next six or seven years were very active in Alberta and British Columbia, but rapidly declined until in 1914 there were only two locals in the province. The organization appealed with most success

to the unskilled workers. The general plan of organization provided for a structure composed of:

(a) Industrial unions embracing all the workers of a given industry in a given locality.

(b) National industrial unions consisting of local industrial unions of the same industry.

(c) Departmental organizations combining national industrial unions of closely allied industries.

Following the proscription of the Industrial Workers of the World in the United States in 1918, the Canadian Government by Order in Council Sept. 24, 1918, under the authority of the War Measures Act of 1914, declared the I. W. W. to be an unlawful association in addition to thirteen other revolutionary groups operating in Canada. Since that time the I. W. W. has not been heard of in Alberta except so far as that organization was the sinister progenitor of the O. B. U.

Opposition craft unionism developed slowly in Western Canada. A resolution favoring industrial unionism passed the Trades and Labor Congress of Canada held at Calgary in 1911. In 1912 the Vancouver Trades and Labor Council circularized the western unions for an expression of opinion on the subject. It was not, therefore, until 1912 that the agitation became serious. The question was warmly discussed in Winnipeg in December 1918 at the Convention of District No. 4 of the Railway Employees Department of the American Federation of Labor, but the real struggle between the two forms of unionism began at Calgary in March 1919, at a Conference of labor representatives from the four western provinces. At this meeting the O. B. U. was launched. The Convention recommended the immediate reorganization of the workers along industrial lines, so that by their industrial strength they could enforce their demands. It recommended the unions to sever their connection with other national or international parent organizations and provided for a referendum vote on the question. To execute the plan of the Convention, a central committee, which afterwards constituted the general executive of the O. B. U., was elected. The names on this Committee should be recorded, for possibly no body of men in the whole history of the west, ever raised such profound emotions of hope on the one hand and fear and doubt on the other. In the minds of thousands within the labor ranks and without, the fear of revolution became real and menacing. The executive was as follows: W. A. Pritchard, Vancouver; R. J. Johns, Winnipeg; Jos. R. Knight, Edmonton; V. R. Midgley, Vancouver; Jos. Naylor, Cumberland, B. C. In addition to the general executive, Provincial Committees were elected representing each of the four provinces of Western Canada. Alberta's representatives were Carl Berg, Edmonton; Donald McNab, Lethbridge; W. Kolling, Brule Mines; Mrs. Geo. L. Corse and J. Marshall of Calgary. Ballots were distributed among the various unions to get an expression of opinion on the O. B. U. principle and also on the

advisability of a general strike on June 1, 1919 to establish the six-hour working day. Contributions were solicited from the unions and those that responded by voting union funds had their charters promptly cancelled by their parent organizations. Little interest was taken in the new movement by the unions of eastern Canada, but by the end of May, Secretary Midgley of the O. B. U. issued a statement that the unions from Port Arthur, Ontario to Victoria, British Columbia, were overwhelmingly in favor of the six-hour day and industrial unionism. Of the 41,365 reported trade unionists in Western Canada, 24,239 voted for the O. B. U. and 5,975 against. Medicine Hat was the only city in Alberta that gave a majority for the O. B. U., the Trades and Labor Council supporting it by a vote of 22 to 8. In Calgary, 34 local branch unions out of a total of 58 voted on the question; 14 of these were unanimously opposed. The remaining 20 gave 728 votes in favor of and 951 votes against the O. B. U. In Edmonton only 16 unions voted out of a total of 62. Eight unions opposed the O. B. U. and of the remaining eight, 646 were recorded in favor and 683 against the O. B. U. Eight unions out of 18 in Medicine Hat voted, giving 123 for and 51 against the O. B. U., while two unions were unanimously in favor. In Lethbridge six unions out of twenty-three voted, showing seven votes in favor and 93 against the O. B. U. Two unions were unanimous in their opposition. The vote of the miners is not included in these figures, but throughout district 18 the vote of the locals was largely in favor of the new form of industrial organization.

Following the vote a second Conference was called and met in Calgary June 11, 1919, to form a Constitution for the new organization and to further its cause. Meanwhile the celebrated Winnipeg strike intervened and spread to all the important cities of Western Canada. By the time of the next meeting of the O. B. U. which was scheduled to come off in October, the officers were required to attend court in connection with the trial of several strikers arrested, it was alleged, for conspiracy and sedition. The convention subsequently met in Winnipeg in January, 1920. It resolved to exclude all workers from the O. B. U. who held a card from an international union, or any other union card. The Winnipeg Defense Committee asked the Convention to take a vote on the question of a general strike to secure the release from jail of the Winnipeg strikers and to ask the coöperation of the workers of Great Britain. The Convention did not go so far as to endorse such a request. A new Executive Board of eight members was elected as follows: Chairman, W. A. Pritchard; Secretary-Treasurer, V. R. Midgley; E. Winch, representing the lumbermen; P. M. Christopher, representing the miners; T. E. Roberts, the metal workers; R. J. Johns, railroad workers; Jos. Naylor, workers west of Rocky Mountains; W. H. E. Logan and H. Cottrell, central district; Jos. R. Knight, eastern division.

The activities and propaganda of the O. B. U. were vigorously combatted by a majority of the trade unionists of Alberta, as will be seen from



PALLISTER HOTEL, CALGARY



ROYAL HOTEL, CALGARY. ONE OF THE OLD LANDMARKS,
NOW DEMOLISHED

the statistics of the vote referred to above. The fight in Alberta was led by Alex Ross of Calgary, now Minister of Public Works and representing labor in the Government of Alberta; Robert Livett and Frank Wheatley of Bankhead and A. Farmilo of Edmonton (the last mentioned being general organizer of the American Federation of Labor), and other leaders in the craft unions of the province.

In April the Edmonton Trades and Labor Council cancelled the credentials of the delegates of the unions which had supported the One Big Union on the ground that their action was a violation of the constitution of the American Federation of Labor. The unions concerned were the locals of the Federal Labor Union of Canada, the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners, the International Association of Machinists and the Metal Workers. The two Edmonton lodges of the Brotherhood of Railway Carmen and the Edmonton local of the Retail Clerks Protective Association defected to the O. B. U.

A few weeks later the whole body of the unions in District 18 of the United Mine Workers of America deserted the International for the One Big Union. The Executive of the Mine Workers Association sent a commission into Alberta and British Columbia to stabilize the situation and win the miners back to the International. Failing this object, the charter of District 18 was revoked on July 28th. The commission, however, continued its activities and after a time won back a number of locals while the dissentients formed a new organization called District No. 1 Mine Department of the One Big Union with eleven local unions under its jurisdiction. An active propaganda was carried on throughout the year by the Provincial Committee of Alberta, publishing for a time "The Soviet" in Edmonton similar to the "O. B. U. Bulletin" in Winnipeg and the "Red Flag" in Vancouver. The movement in Western Canada as well as in Alberta is indicated by statistics published at the end of 1919. There were eight central labor councils; two district boards and 101 local unions mostly situated in Western Canada, with a total membership of 41,150.

During 1920 the O. B. U. steadily declined in Alberta and all through Western Canada, although two special organizers, Jos. R. Knight for Eastern Canada and P. M. Christopher for Western Canada, were kept in the field all year. The organization made the most strenuous efforts to disrupt the existing local unions. The O. B. U. among the miners instigated strikes at various points. In September, 1920, a special convention of the O. B. U. was held in Calgary to protest against the agreements made between the locals of the United Mine Workers Association and the coal operators and to drive the United Mine Workers from Canada. The operators, however, refused to recognize the O. B. U. and with the support of the Department of Labor concluded an agreement with the members of the U. M. W. granting increases in wages and binding themselves to employ only members of the United Mine Workers of

America. Threats and appeals were made by the O. B. U. forces to have the members of the U. M. W. break their agreement. The Coal Operators Association applied for an injunction and succeeded in preventing the O. B. U. officials and members from interfering with the employees of the mining companies who desired to work.

At the second annual convention held in Port Arthur, Ontario, in September the Lumber Workers Union of the O. B. U. Central Labor Council of Edmonton withdrew from the organization. Other defections crippled the organization. By the end of the year sixty-six local units of the 101 in existence at the end of 1919 had passed out of existence, two had deserted, leaving only 50 weak and exhausted in their futile propaganda against the internationals. Meanwhile, the membership had declined to 5,000.

The growth of unionism in Alberta followed closely upon the development of the material and industrial life of the Province. The first unions were naturally the transport unions in connection with the Canadian Pacific Railway. The first union in Alberta was formed at Medicine Hat, January 6, 1887. This was Cascade Lodge, No. 342, of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen with A. L. Morton of Calgary, president, and Jas. H. Smeaton, secretary. A lodge of the Locomotive Engineers was formed in the same year at Medicine Hat, William Love, president, and R. D. Smith, secretary. Two years later a lodge of the Railroad Trainmen was formed at Medicine Hat and in 1890 the Order of Railroad Conductors was organized at the same place with William Crawford, president, and T. C. Blatchford, secretary. As far as known, the first union formed in Calgary was the local of the Railroad Carmen of America in March, 1900. It was followed soon afterwards by a local of the International Association of Machinists.

The miners were the next class of workers to organize in the province. There was a local of the Provincial Working Men's Associations of Miners in Lethbridge in 1901 with Thos. Farrer, president. This organization was superseded in 1903 by the United Mine Workers of America, which, as already noted, entered the province in March, 1903.

The ten year period, 1901-1910, was one of great activity in labor circles. By 1910 nearly every trade and craft in the province was organized at one or more points. A great tide of immigration set in towards Western Canada at the turn of the century and Alberta obtained its share of the inflow of immigrants. Thousands of tradesmen from the Old Country settled in the province and their presence was reflected in a forward movement of trade unionism. By the end of 1903 the workers of Calgary were organized as follows: Building trades, metal trades, wood workers, printers, clothing trades, transport workers, leather workers, general laborers. The Edmonton printers organized in 1903 and the Edmonton Trades and Labor Council was formed January 16th of that year. Unions of the bricklayers, masons, lathers, painters and

paper hangers followed a few months later. The carpenters of Red Deer joined the United Brotherhood of that craft in 1903. Next year, 1904, ten new locals were formed in the province, including the electrical workers, boiler makers, amalgamated carpenters and joiners at Calgary; the carpenters at Wetaskiwin, Lacombe, Lethbridge, Strathcona and Medicine Hat. Locals of the plumbers, steam fitters, plasterers, laundry workers, sheet metal workers and barbers followed next year in Calgary.

In 1906 the United Mine Workers of America invaded the Lethbridge field and established their organization there. The first local of the Federal Union of Canada to be formed in Alberta was organized at Medicine Hat, June, 1907. In that year 15 new unions were formed in the province and in 1908, 16 new unions were added. Among the new trades represented were the Flour and Cereal Workers of Calgary, Restaurant Employees, retail clerks and musicians at Lethbridge.

In the year 1909, nineteen new unions were formed and in 1910 twenty-two more, including carmen, theatrical employees, bookbinders, tailors and bakers. These statistics represent the average annual growth of the Trade Union movement in Alberta until it reached its peak in 1913. In this year there were reported 171 locals and 11,572 members.

By 1906 the trade union movement began to make its influence felt in the steady improvement of working conditions on all works, the lessening of hours of labor, and the securing of more humane and protective legislation. Until 1906 the working day in Alberta was generally nine and ten hours in the cities and longer in the small towns and villages. In this year there was a general and successful movement to reduce the working day to eight hours for carpenters, joiners, painters, bricklayers, masons, plumbers and steam fitters. This result was accomplished by an agreement with the employers and has remained the standard working day in these trades ever since, and has been extended since that time to most of the principal trades of the province.

The success of the trade union movement in Alberta has been due to a variety of causes. In the first place the majority of the workers immigrating to the province were union men and were convinced that the status of the worker depended upon his union organization. Again, the movement began in Alberta at the commencement of a cycle of rising wages and costs of living all over the world. Local conditions in this respect were intensified by an unprecedented demand for all classes of labor and especially for agricultural, railway and urban development.

A unique development in group organization in Alberta in recent years has been the Alberta Teachers' Alliance. This organization was formed in 1917. It was quickly copied by the teachers of other provinces and has gradually developed into the Canadian Teachers' Federation. The Alliance maintains a business agent to promote its organization and policy. It is supported by assessments graduated according to the salaries of its members. It aims to place the teachers in their proper social and

economic position. It strives for a minimum salary of \$1,200 in Alberta and for extensive rights and responsibilities in connection with the administration of schools. It has conducted strikes to enforce these demands. Its membership is now about 3,000 and comprises about 50 locals.

WAGES.

Wages have been generally higher in Western Canada than in the provinces of Eastern Canada, generally higher in the cities of the province than in the towns and villages. From 1900 to 1913 the average rise in wages in Canada was 42.9% which may be taken as an approximate estimate of the increase in Western Canada and Alberta. The rise in agricultural labor, printing, clothing and building trades during the period referred to was above this average, being over 50%. The highest record reached, however, was in the case of domestic servants. The increase for this class of labor was over 71%. The upward trend of wages was most marked in the years 1903, 1906 and 1910 though it continued upward until the break of the land boom and the cessation of railway construction in 1913. The outbreak of the war in 1914 effected a decrease in the trade union membership of Alberta, as it did in other provinces in Canada. In the first year of the war, the number of locals dropped to 149 and the membership to 7,618. At first there was a tendency to reduce wages and reduce staffs. Printers, iron workers, the building trades, civic employees and school teachers were among the sufferers in this respect. In Medicine Hat the printers suffered a cut of 20% and the iron workers of Calgary were reduced from 45 cents to 40 cents per hour. Civic employees in the latter city were cut from 5 to 25% in 1915 and in Edmonton civic officials and school teachers were reduced 10%. The greatest reduction recorded occurred in the case of domestic servants, whose wages were reduced from \$25 to \$30 per month to \$15 and \$10 per month.

The paralysis of the industrial and economic life of the nation threw thousands out of work. Alberta felt the shock and unemployment during the first eighteen months of the war was very serious in the principal cities of the province, notwithstanding the great number of workers that joined the colors and the number of skilled mechanics that went to England to assist in war work.

In 1916 these conditions were suddenly reversed. Labor was difficult to obtain. Over 30,000 men had gone overseas from Alberta in the ranks of the army. The result was a uniformly upward trend of wages which condition steadily held until two years after the close of the war. The wages of agricultural laborers rose from \$40 per month in 1914 to as high as \$86 per month in 1918. The greatest increases, however, were in the coal mines, retail trades and railway services. The railway employees were on the eve of asking for increased wages in 1914 when the war broke

out. The war intervened but the sharp rise in the cost of living following two years of war, precipitated the action contemplated in 1914.

Wage disputes arose among the coal miners, although an agreement had been made in March, 1915, for a period of two years between the Western Coal Operators Association and District 18 of the United Mine Workers of America. The miners refused in July, 1916, to work any longer under the agreement, basing their action on the increase in the cost of living and demanded an increase of 10% on the rates in force. This dispute was settled in August and increases granted ranging from 5% to 12½% with the understanding that the agreement was to continue until March 31st, 1917. In November, 1916, the miners demanded a further increase of 25% to take effect from the first of that month or in the alternative that a war bonus be paid commensurate with the increased cost of living. After a strike of a few days, the Minister of Labor ordered an investigation into the cost of living by an officer of the department. The strike was settled by the Minister of Labor ordering the operators to pay a bonus of \$1.75 per week as from November 1, 1916, to March 31, 1917, by which date it was expected a new agreement would be made. It should be noted that the Government agreed to advance the amounts necessary to pay the bonus, the Government endeavoring to recover from the consumers. The parties (that is, the Western Coal Operators Association and District 18 of the U. M. W. A.) failed to reach an agreement in March, 1917, and great unrest followed in the mining camps. The situation became so grave that in June the Government practically took over the operation of the mines in District 18 and appointed a Director of coal operations, Mr. W. H. Armstrong of Vancouver, with power to make enquiries respecting wages, hours of labor, labor conditions and all other matters affecting the production of coal for the duration of the war and for three months after the declaration of peace. A working agreement was effected by the Director providing for an increase of 22½% over the wages of the agreement which expired March 31, 1917, with an adjustment every four months in accordance with the cost of living determined by a Commission comprised of representatives of the Government, the operators and the mines.

Pursuant to this agreement the Commission recommended and Director Armstrong ordered increases as follows:

- (a) From August 1, 1917, an increase of 20 cents per day.
- (b) From December 1, 1917, an increase of 14 cents a day.
- (c) From April 1, 1918, an increase of 20 cents per day.
- (d) From August 1, 1918, an increase of 15 cents per day.
- (e) From December 1, 1918, an increase of 13 cents per day.

Other increases in 1917 concerned almost every trade. Carpenters were raised to 55 cents; machinists from \$25 to \$27 per week of 50 hours; motormen and conductors to 32 cents and 36 cents per hour according to length of service; freight handlers to 33 and 35 cents according to the

class of service; laborers from 30 to 35 and 40 cents per hour. New and increased schedules were agreed upon between the Canadian Pacific Railway Company and its maintenance of way employees by a Board of Conciliation. Engineers and Firemen on passenger trains were given an increase of 9% and a reduction of hours to an eight hour day. Engineers and firemen on freight trains were increased 5%. In Edmonton civic employees earning \$100 or less per month were restored to the old scale that existed before the war. Bricklayers, plasterers and masons were paid 77 cents per hour.

The steady rise in the cost of living compelled all classes of labor to appeal for higher wages in 1918, consequently the schedules and rates showed a sharp upward turn. In Alberta there were eighteen local wage disputes as well as several other disputes affecting workers belonging to organizations of wider range than the province, such as the railway brotherhoods. In Calgary painters were raised to 55 cents per hour; barbers to \$19 per week plus 60% commission on all earnings over \$30; carpenters to 70 cents per hour; Edmonton policemen were raised 10% in the case of married men, while single men were given a bonus of 5%; teamsters and laborers were increased 10%.

The most important wage changes, however, occurred in the railway schedules. The importance of the change lay not only in the measure of the increases awarded but in the manner in which they were enacted. The exigencies of the war taught the Government the necessity of state control if the industries and commerce of the country were to be kept from breaking down. The United States Government had taken over the railroads of that country for the period of the war. The Canadian Northern Railway and the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway, both of which had been heavily, too heavily, subsidized, by the Government of Canada, were bankrupt and passed into the hands of the Government. The Government of the United States enforced the so-called McAdoo Award and owing, it may be said, to the similarity of economic and working conditions in Canada and the United States and also to the international relations that exist between the Canadian and American railway unions, the McAdoo Award became the logical method of solving the wage disputes pending in Canada among the employees of the Canadian railroads.

During the early months of 1918 almost every class of employees connected with the railways had asked for adjustments of wages and improvement of working conditions. All these claims were finally settled by the Order of the Canadian Railway Board on July 16, 1918. By that order the terms of the McAdoo award affecting wages and hours of labor of railway employees in the United States was enacted in Canada. The order applied to all railway employees whether organized or not, male or female, earning on December 31, 1915, less than \$3,000. In general terms the order meant that a flat increase of \$25 per month was added to the rates prevailing on January 1, 1918, or increases reaching as high

as 43% in the case of lower paid grades of labor over the rates paid this class of labor on December 31, 1915. The Railway Board further ordered after October 15, 1918, that eight hours should constitute a day's work.

Contrary to popular anticipation the cost of living continued to rise after the declaration of peace, at a greater rate than during the war, as the following table prepared from the statistics of the Labor Gazette published by the Federal Department of Labor, shows:

COST PER WEEK OF FAMILY BUDGET OF FIVE PERSONS IN ALBERTA, OF STAPLE FOODS, FUEL, LIGHTING AND RENT FOR YEARS INDICATED.

	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920
Staple foods_____	8.77	8.57	8.22	11.73	13.01	14.06	16.75
Fuel and light---	1.74	1.75	1.72	1.83	2.00	2.41	3.32
Rent -----	7.98	5.97	5.22	5.69	5.85	6.46	8.13

The years 1919-20 witnessed, therefore, numerous upward adjustments among the various trades in the province to counteract the consequences of the shrinking dollar.

The rates for members of the typographical unions in the City of Edmonton, Medicine Hat, Lethbridge and Calgary were raised as follows:

In Edmonton hand compositors and distributors were raised to 76 cents per hour in 1919 and to 86 cents per hour in 1920. Night work was rated at \$2.00 extra on the day rate.

The typographical union of Medicine Hat secured an agreement to run a year from October 31, 1919, raising proofreaders, ad-men, and hand compositors to 78½ cents per hour, machinist-operators to 84½ cents per hour; night rates from \$1.01 to \$1.08 per hour. In Calgary the rates for similar classes of workmen in the printing trades was raised to \$37.00 per week.

Civic employees in Lethbridge were increased 14% in 1919 and in Medicine Hat and Calgary a new agreement was made with the city authorities and the various groups of employees granting subsequent increases. Many of the agreements passed provided for the operation of grievance committees on behalf of the workers. Plumbers' wages were raised to 85 cents per hour in 1919 and in the following year the rate was increased to \$1.00 per hour. Bakers and confectionery employees were paid \$39.25 for foremen, doughmen \$37.25 and bakers \$34.25 per week with provision for an adjustment depending on the cost of living after thirty days' notice. The coal miners of District 18 received an increase of 14% from April 1, 1920, to March 31, 1922, according to an agreement arrived at in June, 1920. All day wages in the mines were increased 27% over the rates in force October 31, 1919. The agreement further advised that only members of the United Mine Workers of America should be employed in the mines of District 18 thus excluding the O. B. U. min-

ers. Under this agreement the average daily earnings of miners in 40 mines were \$9.37 per day.

The highest wages recorded in any trade during the last twenty years in the Province of Alberta were paid to plasterers, masons, bricklayers, in 1920, the rate being \$1.25 per hour for journeymen and \$1.35 per hour for foremen.

The end of 1920 witnessed the beginning of unemployment and the reaction from the feverish activity of the war. The percentage of unemployment among trade unionists in Alberta rose from .83 in October, 1920, to 9.24 in December of the same year. The cost of living reached its peak in 1920 and a decline, small though it was, was reflected in a tendency to reduce wages. Some of the coal unions suffered a reduction of 16% in 1921 and in July of the same year the rates of the McAdoo Award were cut a minimum of 12%.

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES.

Apart from the coal mining industry, industrial disputes have not been serious in Alberta since the advent of trade unionism. But workers have not neglected to use the strike as the final method of obtaining their demands. On the whole, however, the labor leaders of the province have been sane and reasonable in their demands upon the employers. The most serious disputes have occurred among the mines, particularly in the camps of Southern Alberta. There have been four important strikes among the Alberta miners since they became organized in 1903. The first was in 1906. It was the first strike conducted by the United Mine Workers of America in the Province of Alberta. It was really a fight for the recognition of the union. The strike began in Lethbridge March 9, 1916, among the miners of the Alberta Railway and Irrigation Company and continued until December 3, of the same year. Over 500 miners were affected. The company attempted to use non-union men but without success. The approach of winter and the fear of a fuel famine on the prairies, particularly in Saskatchewan, made the situation very serious. Finally a Board of Conciliation was accepted by both parties and a settlement effected whereby the men received an increase of 10% in wages. The company did not concede the recognition of the union, but promised that members of the union should not be discriminated against.

Strikes in the coal mines in normal times usually occur at the termination of the agreements which are generally for two-year periods. These agreements generally terminate at the end of March. On April 1, 1907, the agreement between over 3,500 miners and the several companies comprising the Western Coal Operators Association had expired. A conference of the operators and miners was held in Calgary without result. Meanwhile the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act had become law. A Board of Conciliation was established, presided over by Chief Justice

Mulock of Ontario. After many tedious negotiations an agreement was reached providing for an increase of wages and also for what was calculated to be the most important from the standpoint of industrial peace,—viz., machinery for the settlement of local and general disputes by establishing a permanent board composed of representatives of both parties.

A strike of two months followed the termination of the 1907-09 agreement. The strike continued from April 28, to June 30, and affected 2,500 men. A Scale Committee consisting of seven operators and seven miners of the United Mine Workers met at Macleod, March 2, 1909, and arranged the terms of an agreement satisfactory to both parties.

The Crows Nest Pass Coal Company withdrew from the Western Coal Operators Association and executed a separate agreement with its employees, giving several new powers to the miners in its employment and an increase in wages. Meanwhile the Macleod agreement drawn up by the Scale Committee had been voted on and approved by the men employed by the companies of the Western Coal Operators Association by a vote of 773 to 573. But the day following the signing of the agreement of the Crows Nest Pass Coal Company the miners who were negotiating with the Western Coal Operators Association suspended work until a new agreement could be reached. The miners applied for a Board of Conciliation which was appointed May 15th. On June 30th an agreement was reached. The agreement signed by the parties was an elaborate and careful statement of the rights and duties of both operators and miners. It may be taken as the first satisfactory definition of such rights and duties in this province. Provision was made for settling such disputes according to their gravity by the pit boss, pit committee, mine superintendent and general superintendent and officers of District 18 or finally by a joint committee composed of three operators and three miners. The miners agreed to continue work while any dispute was under investigation by the proper authorities.

Failure to renew this agreement or substitute a new and satisfactory agreement in March, 1911, led to the greatest strike in the history of the coal mining industry in Alberta, lasting as it did from May 1 to November 20, and affecting 6,000 miners directly, and indirectly an indefinite number. Recourse was had to a Board of Conciliation and Investigation composed of the Rev. C. W. Gordon, Winnipeg, chairman; Mr. Colin Macleod of Macleod, Alberta, for the operators, and Mr. A. J. Carter for the miners. Early in July the chairman and representative of the operators submitted a majority report, the representative of the miners a minority report. One of the important points of difference between the parties was the matter of a check-off. This is a plan by which the employees agree to collect the dues of the union. It is peculiar to the coal mining industry. It has always been a bone of contention at every conference of miners and their employers. The reason seems to be that it involves the principle of the open or closed shop, the development and vital existence of

the union. The report of the board emphasized the necessity of a living wage and the standardization of wages in the various mines. The average wage for miners for a number of mines through the district showed such variations as indicated in the figures \$3.98, \$4.62, \$5.61 and \$6.00 per day. Even in the same mine the earnings varied from an average of \$5.61 to a maximum of \$10.13 per day. The minimum report complained there were too many men in the field for the market and advised a check on indiscriminate immigration. Continuance of the dispute resulted in an alarming reduction of the stores of coal throughout the West. The advance of winter and the state of public opinion forced both parties to consider the terrible possibilities of their continuing the strike. Late in October the conference was resumed in Lethbridge through the influence of the Minister of the Interior, Hon. Robert Rogers, and an agreement reached on the basis of the majority report. The miners did not win in this dispute the concession of open shop principle but there was to be no discrimination by the companies against union men or by the miners against non-union men. The companies agreed to the check-off where authorized by individual miners. The miners resumed on November 20th, the new agreement continuing in force until the spring of 1915 when an entirely new condition arose in all the coal fields of the province.

Strikes have occurred in the mines in the Edmonton district and the fields west of Edmonton but none of them have ever been so detrimental to public welfare as those above narrated. The same principles have generally been at stake in every strike, viz., wages that could be regarded as a just reward for the hazardous nature of the work of the miner and the cost of living from time to time; a recognition of the union and partnership in determining working conditions. As long as there was a surplus of miners in the field, operators had an advantage over the men, but in 1916-17 when the mines were undermanned the miners were able to secure most of what they had contended for since the advent of the United Mine Workers into the province 17 years ago.

In summing up this chapter, it may be said that the history of labor in Alberta has been marked by a great change in the attitude of employers and even governments towards workers. Though the claims of the organized workers have often been thwarted and sometimes vexatiously delayed, progress has been steady and permanent. The attitude of labor is understood by the public today and the right of organized and collective action is now an undisputed maxim of our social economy.

CHAPTER XXIII.

ALBERTA IN THE GREAT WAR.

The total enlistments in Alberta for the Canadian Expeditionary Forces during the period of the Great war (1914-1918) were 45,136 men, comprising twenty battalions of infantry, four mounted regiments, three batteries of artillery and a field ambulance unit.

This number does not include many hundreds of reservists of the British, French, Belgian, Serbian and Italian armies who were residing in Alberta when the war broke out. Neither does it include a large number of men and officers who enlisted with Canadian and Imperial units recruited in parts of Canada outside Alberta and in Great Britain.

The infantry battalions raised in Alberta were the 9th, 31st, 49th, 50th, 51st, 56th, 63rd, 66th, 82nd, 89th, 113th, 137th, 138th, 151st, 187th, 191st, 192nd, 194th, 202nd and 218th.

The mounted regiments were 3rd Canadian Mounted Rifles, 12th Canadian Mounted Rifles, 13th Canadian Mounted Rifles, and 19th Alberta Dragoons.

The batteries of artillery were the 20th, 39th and 61st of the Canadian Field Artillery.

No. 2 Tunnelling Company and No. 8 Field Ambulance completed Alberta's contribution in man-power to the strength of the Canadian Expeditionary Forces.

Of the battalions of infantry only three maintained their identity in France. These were the 31st, 49th and 50th battalions. The men and officers of the other battalions from Alberta were sent from the training camps in England to reinforce the Alberta battalions and other Canadian battalions permitted to maintain their identity in France. It was the ambition of the officers and men of every battalion to be sent as an unbroken unit to France, but the heavy casualties and the length of the war rendered such a policy impossible to the higher command.

The day war was declared by Germany against Great Britain every commanding officer in Alberta, as in the rest of Canada, offered his own services and those of his unit to the Canadian Government.

The first unit raised in the Province was the 19th Alberta Dragoons, under Lt. Col. F. C. Jamieson, and Major W. A. Griesbach (later Brig.-General). Recruiting was authorized by the Department of Militia two days after war was declared. In a day or two the regiment was completed and entrained for Valcartier, August 23rd.

Three days after the declaration of war the 9th battalion was authorized. Over four-fifths of the 101st Edmonton Fusiliers volunteered and by August 22nd the battalion was up to 1,300 strength, and left immediately for the camp at Valcartier, under the command of Lt. Col. F. A. Osborne.

Mention is specially made of these units because they were the first in the Province to respond to the Empire's call. Other battalions and regiments soon followed. After the Government of Canada decided to raise a second division, a third and a fourth division for service in France, fresh units were recruited and mobilized as quickly as the Militia Department could train, arm and equip them. Of the 45,000 men from Alberta over 43,000 were volunteers. It was not until the last few months of the war that the Government was compelled to invoke the Compulsory Military Service Law to keep up the strength of the Canadian Divisions at the front.

It is not attempted to treat this chapter as a study of tactics and strategy respecting the services of the Alberta units in the various theatres of the war, and the part they played beside their comrades from Canada in the Allied victories. It is intended to give only a list of the various units from Alberta, showing in a summary form the course of their careers, from recruiting to final disposition in England or France, and to follow the three Alberta battalions through the various battles in which they participated and helped to win.

Units raised in Alberta for the Canadian Expeditionary Forces:

CAVALRY.

(1). Nineteenth Alberta Dragoons: authorized August 6, 1914; recruited in Edmonton; sailed from Canada October 15, 1914; with seven officers and one hundred and seventy-three men; arrived in France February 12, 1915; served as 1st Divisional Cavalry until absorbed as "A" Squadron Canadian Corps Cavalry Regiment; finally changed to Canadian Light Horse February 21, 1917. Perpetuated under former 19th Alberta Dragoons.

(2). Third Regiment C. M. R.: authorized November 5, 1914; C. O. Lt. Col. L. J. Whitaker; recruited in Edmonton, Calgary and Medicine Hat; mobilized at Medicine Hat; sailed from Canada June 12, 1915, with twenty-nine officers and six hundred and twenty-seven other ranks; arrived in France September 21, 1915; served in France as Corps Troops until absorbed by 1st and 2nd Battalion C. M. R. January 1, 1916. Perpetuated as 1st Regiment, Alberta Mounted Rifles.

(3). 12th Regiment C. M. R.: authorized December 1, 1914; recruited in Calgary and Red Deer; sailed from Canada October 9, 1915, with twenty-seven officers and five hundred and twenty-seven other ranks; used as a reinforcing unit until absorbed into Canadian Cavalry Depot



EIGHTH AVENUE, CALGARY. 363RD U. S. INFANTRY ON THEIR
WAY TO FRANCE

February 3, 1916. Perpetuated in active militia as 15th Canadian Light Horse.

(4). 13th Regiment C. M. R.: authorized December 1, 1914; recruited at Pincher Creek, Cardston and Macleod; sailed from Canada June 29, 1916, with thirty-four officers and nine hundred and thirty-three other ranks; absorbed into various units. Perpetuated in active militia as 2nd Regiment Alberta mounted Rifles.

INFANTRY.

(1). 9th Battalion: authorized August 7, 1914; recruited in Edmonton and mobilized at Valcartier; sailed for England October 3, 1914, with ten officers and 1,118 other ranks; reorganized as a reserve battalion April 4, 1915, and sent to reinforce the 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th battalions in France. Perpetuated in active militia as 2nd Battalion, Edmonton Regiment.

(2). 31st Battalion: authorized November 11, 1914; recruited throughout Alberta and mobilized at Calgary; left Canada May 17, 1915, with thirty-six officers and 1,033 other ranks; commanding officers, Lt. Col. A. H. Bell (later Brig. Gen. 6th Infantry Brigade C. M. G., D. S. O.), Lt. Col. E. S. Doughty, D. S. O., Lt. Col. Nelson Spencer, D. S. O.; arrived in France September 18, 1915. Perpetuated in the active militia as 1st and 2nd Battalions, Alberta Regiment.

(3). 49th Battalion: authorized January 4, 1915; commanding officers, Lt. Col. W. A. Griesbach (later Brig. Gen. 1st Infantry Brigade, C. B., C. M. G., D. S. O.), Lt. Col. R. H. Palmer, D. S. O., Major C. Y. Weaver, D. S. O.; sailed from Canada June 4, 1915, with thirty-six officers and 996 other ranks; arrived in France September 9, 1915. Perpetuated as 1st Battalion, Edmonton Regiment.

(4). 50th Battalion: authorized December 15, 1914; recruited and mobilized at Calgary; left Canada October 27, 1915, with forty-one officers and 1,036 other ranks; also sent drafts to England of five officers and 251 men June 14, 1915, of five officers and 250 men September 11, 1915; arrived in France August 11, 1916; commanding officers, Lt. Col. E. G. Mason, O. B. E., Lt. Col. C. B. Workshop, D. S. O., Lt. Col. L. F. Page, D. S. O. Perpetuated as 2nd Battalion, Calgary Regiment.

(5). 51st Battalion: authorized January 4, 1915; recruited in England under Lt. Col. de Lotbiniere Harwood; sailed from Canada with thirty-seven officers and 1,055 other ranks, April 18, 1916; also sent drafts to England of five officers and 253 men June 14, 1915, of five officers and 250 men September 11, 1915, and of one officer and 44 men December 18, 1915; used as a reinforcing unit until it became a Garrison Duty Battalion December 13, 1916. Perpetuated as 3rd Reserve Battalion, Edmonton Regiment.

(6). 56th Battalion: authorized January 24, 1915; recruited in Cal-

gary; sailed from Canada April 1, 1916, with forty officers and 1,073 other ranks; also sent drafts of four officers and 250 men, July 5, 1915, and of five officers and 250 men, September 11, 1915; used as a reinforcing unit until absorbed by 9th Reserve Battalion. Perpetuated as 3rd Reserve Battalion, Calgary Regiment.

(7). 63rd Battalion: authorized June 28, 1915, O. C. Lt. Col. Geo. B. Macleod; recruited in Edmonton, Calgary and Medicine Hat; sailed from Canada April 23, 1916; with thirty-six officers and 1,075 other ranks; also sent drafts to England of five officers and 250 men, September 9, 1915, of three officers and 100 other ranks January 22, 1916, of three officers and 100 other ranks March 2, 1916; used as a reinforcing unit until absorbed by the 9th Reserve Battalion July 7, 1916. Perpetuated as the 4th Reserve Battalion, Edmonton Regiment.

(8). 66th Battalion: authorized June 21, 1915; recruited in Edmonton; sailed from Canada May 1, 1916, with thirty-six officers and 1,013 other ranks; also sent drafts to England of five officers and 250 other ranks, September 11, 1915, of five officers and 222 other ranks January 22, 1916; used as a reinforcing unit until absorbed by 9th Reserve Battalion July 7, 1916. Perpetuated in active militia as 5th Reserve Battalion, Edmonton Regiment.

(9). 82nd Battalion: authorized September 1, 1915; recruited in Calgary; sailed from Canada May 20, 1916, with thirty-four officers and 1,006 other ranks; absorbed by 9th Reserve Battalion in England July 18, 1916. Perpetuated in active militia as 4th Reserve Battalion, Calgary Regiment.

(10). 89th Battalion: authorized November 1, 1915; recruited in Calgary; sailed from Canada June 6, 1916, with thirty-three officers and 969 other ranks; used as a reinforcing unit until absorbed in 9th Reserve Battalion and by 97th Battalion; not perpetuated in active militia.

(11). 113th Battalion: authorized November 17, 1915; recruited in Lethbridge; sailed from Canada with thirty officers and 883 other ranks; absorbed by the 17th Reserve Battalion, October 18, 1916. Perpetuated as 3rd Reserve Battalion, Alberta Regiment.

(12). 137th Battalion: authorized November 11, 1915; recruited in Calgary; sailed from Canada August 24, 1916, with thirty-two officers and 932 other ranks; used as a reinforcing unit until absorbed by 21st Reserve Battalion. Perpetuated as 5th Reserve Battalion, Calgary Regiment.

(13). 138th Battalion: authorized November 22, 1915; recruited in Edmonton; sailed from Canada August 24, 1916, with thirty-two officers and 870 other ranks; used as a reinforcing unit until absorbed by 128th Battalion, December 12, 1916; not perpetuated.

(14). 151st Battalion: authorized November 26, 1915, under Lt. Col. A. W. Arnett; recruited in federal ridings of Battle River, Victoria, Strathcona and Red Deer; sailed from Canada April 10, 1916, with

twenty-nine officers and 925 other ranks; absorbed by 7th and 9th Reserve Battalions October 13, 1916. Perpetuated as 4th Reserve Battalion, Alberta Regiment.

(15). 187th Battalion: authorized January 20, 1916; recruited in Red Deer district; sailed from Canada December 20, 1916, with twenty-four officers and 774 other ranks; absorbed by the 9th Reserve Battalion, February 20, 1917. Perpetuated as 6th Reserve Battalion, Alberta Regiment.

(16). 191st Battalion: authorized January 21, 1916; recruited in Macleod and district; sent drafts to England of six officers and 246 other ranks, of two officers and 60 other ranks; re-organized in Canada as a draft giving depot battalion; not perpetuated.

(17). 192nd Battalion: authorized January 25, 1916; recruited in Blairmore and district; sailed from Canada November 3, 1916, with twenty-three officers and 424 other ranks; absorbed by the 9th Reserve Battalion, November 11, 1916; not perpetuated.

(18). 194th Battalion: authorized January 28, 1916; recruited in Edmonton and district; sailed from Canada November 14, 1916, with thirty-one officers and 912 other ranks; used as a reinforcing unit until absorbed by 9th Reserve Battalion May 28, 1917; not perpetuated.

(19). 202nd Battalion: authorized February 4, 1916, under Lt. Col. P. E. Bowen; known as the Sportsmen's Battalion; recruited in Edmonton and district; sailed from Canada November 24, 1916, with twenty-seven officers and 746 other ranks; used as a reinforcing unit until absorbed by 9th Reserve Battalion, May 28, 1917; not perpetuated.

(20). 218th Battalion: authorized February 23, 1916; recruited in Edmonton under Lt. Col. James K. Cornwall, D. S. O., sailed from Canada February 17, 1917, with twenty-four officers and 582 other ranks; amalgamated with 211th Battalion and organized as the 8th Battalion, Canadian Railway Troops; not perpetuated.

Having enumerated the principal units raised in Alberta and their disposition in England as reinforcements, let us turn our attention to the three battalions that we may say represented Alberta in the fighting lines in France. Hereafter follows the particulars of the part the 31st, 49 and 50th battalions took in the various battles in which they participated throughout their periods of service.

31ST BATTALION, C. E. F., 6TH CANADIAN INFANTRY BRIGADE, 2ND CANADIAN DIVISION.

The 31st Battalion arrived in France September 18, 1915. After six months' duty in the Kemmel Defence the battalion moved to St. Eloi, where fighting was in progress. This battle lasted from March 27th to April 16th. The 31st moved into the battle line on the night of April 3-4, with a strength of twenty-four officers and 703 other ranks, occupying

a front of 1,500 yards. On the 6th the trenches and dugouts were demolished by the German bombardment, but all attempts to capture the position were repulsed. After two more days of strenuous fighting the battalion was relieved at 11 P. M. on the 8th. During the battle the battalion's casualties were 29 killed, 147 wounded and four missing—total 180.

Battle of Mount Sorrel, June 2nd-13th, 1916—On the night of June 5, 1916, the battalion moved from Divisional Reserve at Reninghelst and relieved the 42nd, 52nd and 60th battalions of the 3rd Canadian Division in the Hooze sector at Zouve Wood. Heavy bombardment from the Germans continued all day of the 6th, but the battalion stoutly maintained its position and stopped the advance of the enemy following the blowing of a terrific mine in the 28th battalion trench at Hooze. The battalion held its position until the night of June 8-9, when it moved out to Ypres. During these days in the trenches it lost 33 killed, 128 wounded and 3 missing.

On the night of June 11th the battalion returned to the same trenches relieving the 27th Battalion. On the 13th the 1st Canadian Division recaptured Observatory Ridge and Mount Sorrel, the 31st Battalion protecting the left flank of the attack. After being subjected to heavy shelling in the captured positions, the battalion moved out again to Ypres, on the night of the 14th, being relieved by the 27th battalion. During this part of the fighting the casualties were 67 wounded.

Flers-Courcelette, September 15-22, 1916—At 6:20 A. M. September 15th, the 2nd Canadian Division successfully attacked Candy and Sugar Trenches south of Courcelette. The 31st Battalion operated against Sugar Trench and gained their objective before 7 A. M. Here they consolidated their new position under heavy shell fire and maintained it until 6 P. M., when they led units of the 5th and 7th Infantry Brigades to the main attack on Courcelette. In the afternoon of the 16th, the battalion was withdrawn to Divisional Reserve at the "Brickfields." In this battle the battalion lost 63 killed, 131 wounded and 53 missing—total 247.

Thiepval, September 26-28, 1916—On September 26th the 2nd Canadian Division participated with the 1st Canadian Division on its left in an operation against the German position on Thiepval Ridge. At noon the 6th Canadian Infantry Brigade made an assault with the 31st Battalion on the left of the brigade. Due to wire entanglements, the 31st was held up. A second attack was made by the 31st at 11 P. M., which was only partially successful, but on the 27th the battalion gained its objective and held in throughout the 28th and until it was relieved in the early hours of the following morning. Casualties: killed 60, wounded 209, missing 113—total 382.

At the battle of Ancre Heights (October 1st-November 11th), the 31st Battalion was present but did not engage in the actual fighting, but

a party of three officers and 170 other ranks assisted in carrying rations and water to the front line on the 2nd of October.

Vimy Ridge, April 9-14, 1917—On April 9, 1917, all four divisions of the Canadian Corps attacked the German positions on Vimy Ridge. The 6th Infantry Brigade was in Divisional Reserve at Zero. As the attack proceeded the 6th Brigade passed through the 4th Infantry Brigade on the "Red Line" and captured the third and fourth objectives. At 9:35 A. M. it advanced again, gaining its next objective at 11:30 A. M., when it allowed the 27th Battalion to pass through on its way to win the next line. On the 10th it remained in brigade support and withdrew the following day to Divisional Support at Zivy Cave. Casualties: killed 15, wounded 70, missing 5—total 90.

Fresnoy, May 3-4, 1917—At 3:45 A. M., May 3rd, the village of Fresnoy was attacked by the 1st and 2nd Canadian Division, each employing one brigade. The 6th Infantry Brigade attacked with the 27th and 31st battalions. Owing to darkness and uncut wire the objective was not reached. A new trench was made in front of the enemy wire which the Germans shelled all through the day. The next day the battalion retired to brigade support. Casualties: killed 45, wounded 140, missing 56—total 241.

At Hill 70 (August 15-25, 1917), the 31st Battalion "stood to" in divisional support until the 19th, when the 6th Brigade took over the front, with the 31st in Brigade Reserve, furnishing carrying parties and evacuating the wounded.

Passchendaele, October 27-November 10, 1917—The 31st Battalion was engaged in this terrible battle from the 4th to the 8th of November. At 6 A. M., November 6th, the 1st and 2nd Canadian Divisions attacked Passchendaele Ridge. Meanwhile, the 31st moved into the forward area via Ypres, Potijze and Abraham Heights. About midnight November 5th, they took up a position on the outskirts of Passchendaele. At 6 A. M., on the 6th the brigade to which they were attached attacked and captured the town. During the fighting the 31st suffered heavy casualties. The brigade, however, constructed a line of defence and outposts during the day. The following day saw the work of consolidation and evacuation of the wounded completed. That night at 11 P. M. (November 7), the battalion was relieved and moved to Corps Reserve at Brandhoek. During the period in the line it captured 90 prisoners and 4 machine guns. Casualties, killed 59, wounded 233, missing 13—total 305.

When the Germans launched their great offensive in March, 1918, in the direction of Amiens the 2nd Canadian Division was in Army Reserve and ready to attack if the enemy broke through. The 31st Battalion was at Pommier "standing to" ready to move at a moment's notice.

Amiens, August 8-11, 1918—General Ludendorff has said that the 8th day of August, 1918, was the darkest and most terrible day in the his-

tory of the German people. It was on that day that the great British counter offensive to the attack of the Germans of the previous March was launched, and that the Canadians broke the German line at Amiens.

The 31st Battalion went through the entire battle. The Canadian Corps attacked between Villars Bretonneux and Hourges, 3rd Division on the right, 1st Division in the centre, and the 2nd Division on the left.

At 5:40 A. M. the 31st Battalion moved from the assembly area to Marcel Cave. The 5th Infantry Brigade continued the advance with the 6th Infantry Brigade in support to Gillan Court. Then the latter brigade assumed the attack with the 31st on right front, reaching the desired objective near Caix.

At 11 A. M. on the 9th the advance was resumed, but was temporarily checked by enemy machine gun fire. The 31st cleared Rosieres by 4:30 P. M. and gained its position east of the village, where the 28th Battalion passed through and continued the attack. At night the 31st relieved the 28th in the outpost line at Meharicourt-Lihons Road. On the 10th, the 4th Canadian Division passed through and the 31st withdrew to Rosieres in brigade support, and on the following day moved back to Caix into Divisional Reserve. Casualties: killed 29, wounded 215, missing 8—total 252.

During the continuation of the offensive, operations were carried out by the 2nd and 3rd Canadian Divisions along the Scarpe River. On August 26th the 6th Infantry Brigade made three successive attacks, but during these attacks the 31st Battalion was in Brigade Reserve. During this and the following day, the battalion was ready to be used in the event of a counter attack. During the 27th, the 4th and 5th Brigades continued the advance to the Sensée River, with the 6th Infantry Brigade in close support. Next day the advance was resumed in the same formation, the 31st in Divisional support until it was relieved late that night by the 7th Battalion and moved back to the Neuville-Vitasse area. Casualties for the five days: killed 7, wounded 66, missing 2—total 75.

September opened with smashing of the Drocourt-Queant section of the Hindenburg line by the British and Canadian troops. On September 3rd the 1st and 4th Canadian Divisions advanced. The 31st Battalion moved up to Cherisy and relieved the 7th Battalion in the front line. On September 4th, the Canadians were established on the west bank of the Canal du Nord and several days were needed to devise plans for its capture. During the battle, September 27-October 1, for the Canal, the 31st were in the battle area in Corps Reserve, while the attack was being pushed forward by the 1st, 3rd and 4th Divisions.

Cambrai, October 8-9, 1918—The battle of Cambrai was the last great battle of the war, and it has been called the greatest battle waged by the Canadian Corps. There was still a month of hard work chasing the Hun with a few major operations to maintain interest and relieve the monotony of the chase.

In conjunction with the general offensive operations October 9th, the 2nd Canadian Division attacked from north of Cambrai at 1:30 A. M. Under cover of darkness the positions at Morenchies and Ramillies across the Canal de l'Escaut to Escaudoevres. The 31st Battalion from a position west of Ramillies attacked northeast through Cuvillers and by 10 P. M. was lying on the western outskirts of Thun Leveque. In preparation for the pursuit to Mons the battalion sent forward strong patrols to clear the assembly positions of the enemy. At 4:30 A. M. on the 10th of October, the battalion jumped off and by 6 A. M. had captured Thun Leveque and secured possession of the Canal and bridgeheads, establishing itself during the day. Next day the battalion, under orders to advance beyond Hordian, started forward at 9 A. M., but was held up by heavy barrage of the enemy. Finally the battalion reached Iwuy at 1 P. M., one thousand yards short of the objective, which position it held until relieved the following day by Argyle and Sutherland Highlanders, and marched back to Esuars. Casualties: killed 14, wounded 130, missing 6—total 150.

The final action of the battalion was on the day of the Armistice (November 11). That morning it marched to the jumping off position west of St. Symphorien and commenced to attack, advancing as far as Petit Havre. When at 11 A. M. "cease fire" came, the battalion moved into billets at Havre.

Honors and Awards—C. M. G. 1; D. S. O. 6; O. B. E. 3; M. C. 46; D. C. M. 28; M. M. 223.

49TH BATTALION, C. E. F., 7TH CANADIAN INFANTRY BRIGADE, 3RD CANADIAN DIVISION.

Battle of Mount Sorrel, June 2-13, 1916—The 49th Battalion arrived in France October 10, 1915, but did not participate in any engagement until the battle of Mount Sorrel, June, 1916. On June 2nd, the battalion was in Brigade Reserve behind Ypres, when the enemy attacked at noon and captured the front trenches held by the 3rd Canadian Division in the Hooze sector. The 49th, with the 52nd, and 60th battalions, were ordered to counter attack under Colonel W. A. Griesbach, the officer commanding the 49th battalion. On the 3rd of June, the 49th moved up under heavy shelling to a point of assembly at Sanctuary Wood, and were in position at 2:10 A. M. The 52nd and the 60th battalions did not arrive at the assembly point and the 49th attacked alone at 7 A. M., retaking the reserve trenches lost on the previous day, holding the line until relieved on the night of June 4-5, when they withdrew to Ypres. Casualties: killed 52, wounded 265, missing 69—total 386.

Flers-Courcelette, September 15-22, 1916—At 6 P. M., September 15th, the 2nd Canadian Division had captured Courcelette. The 3rd Division held the front from Courcelette to Mouquet Farm. The 7th Infantry

Brigade attacked west of Courcelette with the Princess Patricia's Light Infantry and the 42nd Battalion. The 49th Battalion joined the attack at Fabeck Graben Trench which was entered and consolidated. While still in the front line on the 16th an unsuccessful attempt was made to occupy Zollern Graben. That night two companies were relieved, and on the following morning the remaining two companies were relieved, the whole battalion moving out to Divisional Reserve at Tara Hill and Albert. Casualties: killed 43, wounded 191, missing 19—total 253.

In this engagement Pte. John Chipman Kerr was awarded the Victoria Cross for his action on September 16th, when he led a bombing party against a German garrison, clearing the trench with grenades and rifles, capturing 62 prisoners and 250 yards of enemy trench.

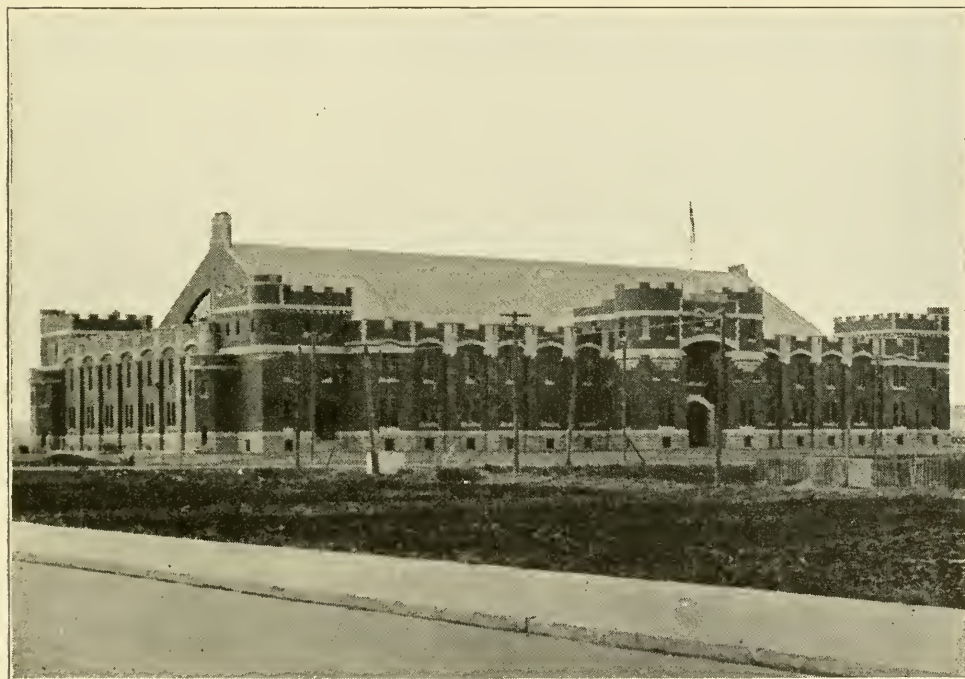
Ancre Heights, October 1-November 11, 1916—The 49th Battalion took part in this battle on two occasions. On October 2nd, the 49th moved into the front trenches and relieved some companies of the 8th Canadian Infantry Brigade, suffering heavy shelling until relieved October 3rd by the 11th Cheshires, and moved to billets in the Albert area. On the 7th the battalion returned to the front line and took over the Zollern Graben Trench from the 42nd Battalion. The next morning at 4:57 A. M. the battalion attacked Regina Trench, but heavy fire and wire entanglements held up the assault. Some of the men of "D" and "C" companies reached the Regina Trench, but were never seen or heard of again. The remainder of the battalion held on stubbornly in Kenora Trench and in shell holes until night, when they were relieved by the 42nd. Casualties in both engagements: killed 54, wounded 157, missing 63—total 274.

Vimy Ridge, April 9-14, 1917—The battle of Vimy Ridge was a successful struggle of the Canadian Divisions for one of the most important strategic positions on the whole Western Front. The French had lost and the British had failed to take it. For the first time the four Canadian Divisions attacked side by side. They moved forward in order of number from the right. Zero hour was 5:30 A. M., April 9th. The 7th Infantry Brigade attacked with three battalions, the 49th going forward in close support and mopping up the brigade area, and also assisting in carrying ammunition, evacuating the wounded and reinforcing the front line in the final objective. During the 10th the battalion remained in support, furnishing carrying parties to the front line, bringing in the wounded and sending out patrols to get in touch with the enemy. On the 11th, they took over a part of the front held by the 42nd Battalion and the Princess Patricia's Light Infantry and on the night of the 12th-13th, they were relieved in turn by the 43rd Battalion, and went into brigade reserve. Two days later the battalion joined the 7th Infantry Brigade in Divisional Reserve. Casualties: killed 17, wounded 84, missing 11—total 112.

The battalion had a rest from fighting until August. From the 21st to the 25th of that month, it was in the battle area at Hill 70. During



SOLDIERS CONVALESCENT HOME, EDMONTON



ARMOURY, CALGARY

that period it was in reserve at Allouagne, while the 1st and 2nd Canadian Divisions were attacking Hill 70 northwest of Lens, and moved into forward area, taking over the support line behind the Royal Canadian Regiment, and was relieved by the 42nd on the 27th. Casualties: killed 8, wounded 25—total 33.

Passchendaele, October 26-November 10, 1917—In October, 1917, the Canadian Corps was transferred to the Ypres salient for the attack on Passchendaele Ridge. The 7th Brigade reached its destination October 23rd. On the night of the 28th, the 49th Battalion relieved the 116th Battalion in the front line. On the 30th the Canadian Corps attacked with brigades from right to left—12th, 7th, 8th. The 7th had the Princess Patricia's Light Infantry on the right, and the 49th on the left. The 49th operating at Bellevue jumped off under heavy fire from rifles and machine guns, sustaining heavy casualties and only partially winning its objective. A new line was constructed and held against all counter-attacks of the Germans until the 42nd Battalion took their places on the night of the 31st. On November 1st the battalion was withdrawn behind Ypres and the following day moved to Watou. Casualties: killed 126, wounded 288, missing 29—total 443.

In this battle Pte. Cecil John Kinross was awarded the Victoria Cross for attacking a machine gun located in Furst Farm, which was holding up the advance. He rushed the position against point blank fire, alone and in broad daylight, killing the crew of six men and destroying the gun.

Amiens, August 8-11, 1918—From December, 1917, to August, 1918, the Canadian Corps was kept out of battle and resolutely trained for the last great offensive of the war. On August 8th the Canadians went into action, the four divisions attacking the Amiens-Roye Road and Villers Bretonneux. The divisions in line were the 3rd, 1st and 2nd. The 3rd Canadian Division attacked with the 8th and 9th brigades, the 8th on the north bank of the Luce River, while the 9th captured Dodo Wood and established a line continuous with that of the 8th in the inner defences of Amiens. The 7th Brigade then passed through the 9th to the second objective, the 49th in the lead, when the brigade jumped off at 8:20 A. M., and though the battalion met with stiff resistance in the woods near the Luce River it gained its objective at 11 A. M. At 12:10 P. M. the 5th Division passed through and the 7th Brigade bivouacked at its final objective and watched the cavalry and tanks take up the pursuit of the enemy. On the 9th the battalion moved forward and by night reached a position in divisional reserve east of Le Quesnel. On the 11th it moved up behind the 42nd, which was in the front line west of Parvillers. Casualties: killed 10, wounded 51—total 61.

For the next two days fighting continued intermittently, the 49th and the 42nd clearing the Germans out of their whole defensive system. On the 15th the 49th captured Blucher Wood, and the next day moved back to Le Quesnel, retiring to Corps Reserve on the 16th. During these opera-

tions, known as the battle of Damery, the battalion captured 215 prisoners, 51 machine guns, 12 guns, 2 trench mortars.

Battle of the Scarpe, August 26-30, 1918—The success at Amiens opened the way for the advance on the Hindenburg line, with Cambrai as the strategic objective. In the interim between the battles of Damery and of the Scarpe, the Canadian Corps moved north to the Arras Front. On the 26th of August the 2nd and 3rd Divisions attacked east of Arras. The 7th Canadian Infantry Brigade was given an important part to play in the coming operation. The attack was launched at 3 A. M., by the 8th Brigade, which reached its objective by 7:40 A. M., capturing Orange Hill and Monchy Le Preux. Early in the morning, the 7th Brigade was ordered to pass through the 8th Brigade. Its attacking line consisted of two battalions and a half battalion on the left to protect its left flank on the bank of the Scarpe River. This duty was imposed on the 49th Battalion, two companies of which formed a screen on the left to the Princess Patricia's Light Infantry. The other half of the battalion was in reserve to the Princess Patricia's, which was meeting heavy opposition from the direction of Pelves. "B" and "C" companies were sent to assist the Patricia's and also encountered heavy machine gun and shell fire all afternoon. "D" company supplied carrying and stretcher parties for the P. P. C. L. I. (Princess Patricia's Canadian Light Infantry), which was tenaciously holding a dangerous position against German counter attacks. Next day (August 27th) the attack was carried on by the 9th Brigade and by 7:15 A. M. Bois du Surt was won, where the advance was stopped, but a company of the 49th Battalion linked up the divisional line by breaking through the position of the P. P. C. L. I. Another company moved to the support of the 58th Battalion. During the night these companies rejoined the battalion for the attack planned on Pelves and Jigsaw Valley the next day. At 2 A. M. (August 28th), the 49th Battalion moved forward and took the trenches south of Pelves, and by 5 A. M. had occupied Pelves itself. By 10:30 A. M. it had occupied and consolidated a position about Haversack Lane. During that forenoon the battalion gave effective protection to the left flank of the P. P. C. L. I. in the assault upon, and capture of Jigsaw Wood, and assisting in holding the position against the enemy's bombardment and counter attacks. On the 29th the battalion moved into billets in Arras, arriving there at 6:20 A. M. Casualties: 13 killed, 65 wounded—total 78. Captures: 84 prisoners, 15 machine guns, 4 trench mortars, 3 anti-tank rifles.

Canal du Nord (September 27-October 1, 1918).—On the opening day of the battle, the Canadian Corps attacked with the object of crossing the Canal du Nord and seizing Bourlon Wood. The 1st and 4th Canadian Divisions launched the attack at 5:30 a. m. (September 27th), and quickly reached the objective at Bourlon Wood. Meanwhile the 3rd Division came up ready to throw its weight into the attack. But owing to the narrow front the brigades followed at greater distances than usual. At 3:30 p. m.

on the 27th, the division was in position. The 7th brigade lay behind with instructions to leap-frog over the 4th Division at dawn on the 28th and force the Marcoing line from Saily to the South in the angle of the Arras-Cambrai and Bapaume-Cambrai Roads and turn northeast and capture Tilloy, Tilloy Hill and the Valley of Ramillies. The attack was to be led by the Royal Canadian Regiment with the P. P. C. L. I. and the 49th in support, and when the Marcoing line was taken, the two battalions were to leap-frog through the Royal Canadian Regiment and go forward to the final objective at Ramillies. But the advance was held up at Marcoing and a second attack was launched by the 49th with the assistance of heavy barrage, getting through to St. Olle, suffering heavily from the machine guns of the enemy. On the 29th the attack was resumed by the 49th and 42nd battalions, finding progress difficult and casualties heavy, but finally reaching the Cambrai-Donai Road before Tilloy at noon. The next day the battalion, along with the R. C. R. (Royal Canadian Regiment) and P. P. C. L. I. pushed through and occupied Tilloy. The next day at 5 a. m. the 9th brigade passed through to the attack and the battalions of the 7th brigade, of which the 49th was one, returned to Bourlon Wood. Casualties: 51 killed, 260 wounded, 8 missing—total 319. Captures: 50 machine guns, 10 trench mortars, 2 field guns, 2 anti-tank guns and a large quantity of ammunition.

This was the last battle in which the 49th were engaged in actual fighting. They were present at the Grand Honnelle, November 5th-7th. On the 7th of November the 7th brigade took over the line, the 49th in support of the P. P. C. L. I. When peace came, the 49th was billeted in Mons and took part in the march of the Canadians into Germany.

Honours and awards: V. C. 2; C. B. 1 (Brig.-General W. A. Griesbach); C. M. G. 1 (Brig.-General W. A. Griesbach); D. S. O 7; O. B. E. 3; M. C. 35; D. C. M. 27; M. M. 184; mention in despatches 44; French Croix de Guerre, 4; Belgian Croix de Guerre, 3.

50TH BATTALION, C. E. F., 10TH CANADIAN INFANTRY BRIGADE, 4TH CANADIAN DIVISION.

The 50th battalion arrived in France August 11, 1916. The battalion's first experience was at Ancre Heights, though it took only a minor part. Its first taste of actual fighting was in the line North of Courceleste on October 14th, where it relieved the 44th, holding the line until the night of the 17th. Fighting was not severe, the casualties being 1 killed and 43 wounded. On the 20th the battalion returned to the line and the next day sent "A" Company to assist the 87th battalion in holding Regina Trench. It continued relieving various battalions in the front line until November 9th. During the period it was in the battle area its casualties were killed 9, wounded 89.

Battle of the Ancre (November 13-18).—On November 14th the battalion moved from brigade reserve East of Albert in the front line and remained there until the 16th, returning to the trenches on the 18th. At 6:10 a. m. that day "A" and "B" companies jumped-off and attacked enemy trenches 300 yards in advance of Regina Trench. After inflicting heavy losses and taking one hundred prisoners, the two companies were forced to return to Regina Trench. Casualties 215.

Vimy Ridge (April 9-14, 1917).—At Vimy Ridge during the attack on the opening, the 50th battalion was in reserve. On the 10th at 3:15 a. m. the battalion went into action and captured Hill 145, with 125 prisoners and two machine guns, but suffered heavy casualties. On the 12th, it was again in action for an attack on the Pimple. Zero hour was 5 a. m. A blinding snow storm was raging, but the men pressed forward bombing and bayonetting the Germans out of their trenches, winning all objectives by 5:45 a. m. and suffering few casualties. The next day (April 13th), the battalion moved forward at 5:30 a. m. and reached a distance of 1,100 yards, establishing a new line north of Givenchy, which was handed over to the 1st battalion at 8:30 p. m. the same day. Casualties: 66 killed, 143 wounded, 62 missing—total 271.

The Victoria Cross was awarded to Pte. J. G. Pattison for his action on April 10th, when the attack was held up by a machine gun nest. Pte. Pattison advanced alone, and against point black fire bombed the nest, putting the guns out of action. He then bayonetted the German crews. The advance then continued and all objectives were gained. Pte. Pattison was killed June 2nd following.

The Souchez River Affair (June 3-25, 1917).—At midnight on the 2nd-3rd of June, the 10th brigade attacked the German positions from La Coulette to the Souchez River. The 50th battalion on the left, operated against an electric generating station, taking the station after desperate fighting. On account of the difficulty of digging trenches in the hard chalk and the severe shelling of the enemy, the battalion withdrew to its old line. Heavy losses were inflicted on the enemy and 54 prisoners brought in. On the 4th the battalion was relieved and moved out to divisional reserve at Chateau de la Haie. It continued in the battle area until the end of the affair in divisional support and in the front line. From the 20th to the 25th the battalion held the front line advancing the same to conform with advances made by other units. Casualties for the period: 64 killed, 244 wounded, 32 missing—total 340.

Hill 70 (August 15-25, 1917).—The 50th battalion moved into the forward area on the 19th on the outskirts of Lens. On the 21st, while assembling for attack, the battalion was heavily shelled, suffering over 100 casualties. At 4:30 a. m. the attack was made, but without success, a few men reaching the objective and after holding on for several hours were compelled to retire. At 6 p. m. an attack was made by bombing on Aloof Trench, and the next three days were spent in improving the position

gained, which was handed over to the 87th. Casualties: killed 57, wounded 280, missing 33—total 370.

Second Passchendaele (October 26-November 10, 1917).—The battle opened with an attack by the 3rd and 4th Canadian Divisions southwest of Passchendaele, the 10th brigade crossing the divisional front with the 46th battalion. At 5:40 a. m. the 46th attacked with the 50th in support, "D" Company moving forward with the attacking troops. All objectives were reached and "C" and "D" Companies of the 50th under the officer commanding the 46th assisted in holding the position. In the afternoon strong enemy counter-attacks forced the 50th and 46th back to the jumping-off line. That night the battalion moved out to brigade reserve. The next night (October 27th) the battalion "stood to" ready to assist the 44th and 47th, remaining so until relieved by the 72nd battalion on the night of the 28th, when it moved to Divisional Reserve at Brandhoek. Casualties: 27 killed, 78 wounded—total 105.

Amiens (August 8-11, 1918).—As pointed out in dealing with the 49th battalion, the 3rd, 1st and 2nd Divisions attacked the enemy line south of Villers-Bretonneux. The 4th division was in Corps reserve. At 12:40 p. m. this division passed through the 3rd division on the intermediate objective and carried the attack to the final objective. During this operation, the 50th battalion was in divisional reserve, and following the advance passed Bois de Gentilles and crossed the Luce River at noon, and reached Feronne Wood at night. At 2 p. m. the 1st and 3rd divisions passed through and occupied Bouchoir, Folies, Beaufort and Rouvry. At 8 p. m. the 50th relieved the 85th in the line. The next day at 10:15 a. m. the 10th and 12th Canadian infantry brigades attacked in the direction of Hattencourt, and Hallu, the 50th battalion in support of the 46th, which captured Mancourt and reached its objective. Here the 50th was to leap-frog through the 46th. The advance was held up at Fouquescourt. At 7:20 p. m. the 50th assaulted and fighting their way forward, took prisoners and machine guns and reached Hallu. A strong enemy counter-attack developed next forenoon. It was successfully checked, but the line was withdrawn to a position one thousand yards from the railway in front of Hallu. That night the 50th retired from the line, giving place to the 46th battalion. Casualties: 39 killed, 184 wounded, 22 missing—total 245.

On the 28th of August, the 50th moved from Amiens to the area east of Arras, resting and training for the battle of Drocourt-Queant Line.

Drocourt-Queant Line (September 2-3, 1918).—The Drocourt-Queant line was the last stronghold of the Bosche in Northern France, and the Germans exerted their supremest effort to hold it. The attack against this formidable system of trenches began on September 2nd, the 1st and 4th Canadian Divisions advancing astride the Arras-Cambrai Road. At 5 a. m. that morning the 50th battalion assaulted behind an intense and devastating barrage, covering 500 yards to the enemy front line, clearing the trenches with bombs and bayonets. In this assault 1,000 prisoners, 90

machine guns, 2 anti-tank guns and a large quantity of other war material were taken. After the capture of the first four lines of the Drocourt-Queant trench system had been completed by the 50th, the 46th passed through and captured Dury. On September 3rd, the advance was continued, the 50th covering the 44th and driving the enemy back on the Canal du Nord. Casualties: 33 killed, 210 wounded—total 243.

Canal du Nord (September 27-October 1, 1918).—On September 27th the 1st and 4th Divisions launched the attack for the Canadians across the Canal du Nord on the way to Cambrai. The 3rd Division was to pass through the 4th Division on the following day and continue the attack. At 5:30 a. m. on the 27th, the 10th infantry brigade, operating towards Bourlon Wood, attacked the first objective led by the 46th battalion, the 50th being in support. The objective—the Marquion Line—was carried. Here the 11th and 12th brigades continued the advance. On the following day (September 28th), at 5:20 a. m. the 50th battalion jumped-off from its position northeast of Bourlon Wood and advanced across the Arras-Cambrai Road, passing Raillencourt and Sailly to the Marcoing Line, where the 46th battalion passed through to the Cambrai-Douai Road. Next day (September 29th) the line was taken over by the 12th Infantry Brigade and the 50th battalion moved back to Bourlon Wood in divisional reserve. Casualties: 32 killed, 214 wounded—total 246.

Valenciennes (November 1-2, 1918).—The 50th battalion terminated its arduous service in France at the battle of Valenciennes, or the capture of Mont Houy. On the 1st day of November, the 10th Infantry Brigade attacked Mount Houy at 5:15 a. m. and captured the position of the enemy and advancing northeast to the edge of Valenciennes. The 50th battalion, closely supporting the 47th battalion, mopped up the area taken and formed a defensive flank along the west bank of La Rhonelle River. At 12:30 a. m. the following morning the 50th relieved the 47th in the front line. The 11th and 12th infantry then took up the advance and occupied Valenciennes and the 50th moved back into divisional reserve at Trith St. Leger. Casualties: 5 killed, 39 wounded, 85 gassed—total 129.

Honours and awards: V. C. 1; D. S. O. 6; M. C. 34; D. C. M. 23; M. M. 227; M. S. M. 10; mention in despatches 27; Belgian Croix de Guerre 3; Russian Cross of St. George 6.

Note:—The details of the various battles given in the above chapter were furnished by the Department of National Defence, Ottawa, through the kindness of G. J. Desbarats, Esq., C. M. G.

CHAPTER XXIV.

WOMEN'S ORGANIZATIONS AND ACTIVITIES.

The women of Alberta are well represented in all the national organizations for women. Like all Canadian women they have a genius for organization. Among the Alberta Branches of the national organizations are some of the most prominent women in Canada. The National Council of Women, The Imperial Order of the Daughters of the Empire, the Young Women's Christian Association, the Women's Christian Temperance Union, the Victoria Order of Nurses, the Women's Canadian Club, the National Council of Women, and other organizations have flourishing and aggressive locals in the principal centres of the Province.

Of distinctly Provincial organizations, the most important are the Women's Institutes and the United Farm Women of Alberta. These two operate among the women of the rural districts. Besides these there are numerous isolated societies, leagues and clubs such as Musical Clubs, University Clubs, Civic Clubs and Mothers Clubs.

A third group of Women's organizations that exert a great influence in Alberta, as they do in every Province of Canada, consists of the missionary societies and ladies' aids of the various churches. Every city, town and village has a group or two of devoted women who foster the work of the religious denomination to which they belong. Without their energy and enthusiasm religious and missionary work would be at a low ebb in many places. They are the oldest type of women's organizations in the Province, as in all other parts of Canada, and exert a profound influence on the life of the community.

It is generally recognized throughout the Dominion of Canada that the position of the women in Alberta is farther advanced than in any other Province. The women participate in a greater degree in the economic and political life of the Province than in most Provinces of Canada, and are rapidly taking their places beside the men in the conduct of public affairs.

They enjoy the same status and legal rights. Their position depends entirely upon their desire to embrace their opportunities and train themselves for their waiting responsibilities. "To no one woman or group of women," says Mrs. Henrietta Muir Edwards, "is due the present splendid legal position of women in Alberta. It is due to the Alberta women, who, by their courage, endurance and ability did team work with their husbands and brothers in all that has made for the

development of the Province. The present legal position of Alberta women was gained not by militant methods, nor denunciation and accusations of men, but by measuring up to the requirements of new surroundings and new duties; and also to the generous appreciation of Alberta men who have placed the women on an absolute equality in all the responsibilities and duties of full citizenship."

It is a remarkable fact that woman suffrage was never opposed by any representative body of men in the entire Province. Women's rights have been enthusiastically supported by the United Farmers of Alberta. The attitude of the organized farmers gives the clue to the attitude of the men of the Province. Farm women have had a large share in developing Alberta. One of the delightful things about Alberta rural life is the absence of strain and dislocation in the relations between men and women. There is no jealousy that men will lose what women gain. Among the primitive necessities incident to pioneering a woman needs a man's help, and a man needs a woman's. She is helpless as a pioneer, but on the other hand the bachelor in a dreary ill-kept "shack" is not a happy or very efficient citizen. This fact is recognized by the banks. The married man with a family is a better risk for a banker's loan than a bachelor.

To quote from a recent writer from the Old Country on life in Western Canada: "For a man in the West marriage does not mean what it does among the well-to-do at home, giving up comfortable bachelor lodgings for an expensive life of house-owning and smart dinners; it means leaving a ghastly loneliness for companionship and help, and squalor for decent comfort. For a woman in this new land the sphere of the home does not mean polishing scratches on silver or decorating the dining room with masses of flowers, but feeding and clothing and cheering husband and children, and being kind to poor bachelors round about who need kindness badly. Woman is at her old task as the civilizer, not as the over-civilizer."

When the Torrens System of land registration was introduced into the North West Territories in 1886 dower rights were abrogated. For years there was strong feeling on this question as much among men as among women. It was universally recognized that the homesteader's wife had as great a share in developing the raw prairie homestead into a comfortable and prosperous home as her husband and that it was an injustice that this product of their joint labour became his sole property. The feeling grew until the anomaly was corrected by the Alberta legislature in passing the Married Women's Relief Act and the Dower Act. By the first act mentioned, the widow of a man who dies leaving a will, by the terms of which in the opinion of the judge, the widow receives less than if her husband died intestate, may apply to the Supreme Court for relief. By the Dower Act the widow is entitled to a life interest in the homestead of the deceased husband. Broadly speaking the term



EDMONTON CLUB



COUNTRY CLUB, EDMONTON

homestead may be said to be the place occupied as the residence at the time of the husband's death. In towns and cities it is considered to be not more than four adjoining lots in one block in which the house occupied by the husband at his decease was situated. In rural districts the term homestead by the act is restricted to one quarter section of land. The legislation on these questions was not regarded as chivalrous concessions by the husband, but as a recognition of fundamental rights of the wife. For similar reasons the men of Alberta have always been in favour of giving women the vote. And when in 1916 the Honourable A. L. Sifton proposed to confer the franchise on the women of the Province, his Government was strongly supported in the press of the country, and in the legislature.

It is not surprising, therefore, that Alberta has led the way in several lines of women's endeavours. It granted equal suffrage a few months later than Manitoba. For years women had served on hospital boards, library boards, school boards, but Alberta was the first Province in Canada to elect women to the Legislative Assembly. In the general election in 1917 Mrs. Louise McKinney was elected for the riding of Claresholm, and Miss Roberta McAdams was elected as one of the Soldier representatives. In 1913 Mrs. R. R. Jamieson and Mrs. Fred Langford, of Calgary, were appointed Juvenile Court Commissioners for the trial of juvenile offenders. Mrs. Jamieson was the first woman officer of this class appointed in Canada. In 1916 Mrs. Arthur Murphy ("Janey Canuck") and Mrs. R. R. Jamieson were appointed Police Magistrates for the trial of women offenders in their respective cities of Edmonton and Calgary. Dr. Evelyn Windsor who was in charge of the medical work in the Calgary schools was the first woman physician to be sent overseas from Canada by the Department of Militia. The latest honour accorded women in Alberta has been the elevation of Mrs. Walter Parlby to a seat in the Provincial Cabinet, August, 1921. Mrs. Parlby is Minister without Portfolio, the second woman in the British Empire to win that distinguished position. The first was Mrs. Mary Ellen Smith, of Vancouver, elevated to a similar position in the Cabinet of British Columbia in 1920.

The National Council of Women is represented by locals in Edmonton, Calgary, Medicine Hat, Lethbridge, Red Deer and Wetaskiwin. The women identified with these organizations have devoted their activities to social and economic problems concerning women. Such subjects as equal parental control, homes for mentally deficient children and destitute old people, mothers' pensions, and equal moral standards for men and women, have been strongly advocated, and the passing of legislation on these subjects is in a great measure due to the intelligent propaganda of the various branches of the Local Councils.

The Independent Order of the Daughters of the Empire is a patriotic organization and valiantly discharged that duty during the years of the Great war. The Daughters of the Empire in Alberta were the first

to take up the support of the families of the first reservists called in August, 1914, to join their old regiments overseas, as well as the support of the families of the members of the First Canadian contingent. This work they carried on until the Canadian Patriotic Fund was organized and in a position to dispense relief. When the war broke out there were not more than half a dozen Chapters of the Order in the Province; when the war closed in 1918, there were eighty-seven Chapters in the Province, with a membership of about 2,500 devoted to every phase of war relief. During the four years the Order collected \$250,000 for patriotic purposes.

Organized action on behalf of women in rural districts is promoted by the United Farm Women of Alberta and the Women's Institutes. The former is the sister organization of the United Farmers of Alberta and was begun in 1915. Since 1913 women have been eligible as members of the United Farmers of Alberta. It was but a step to form themselves into a separate section. This was done in 1915 with Mrs. Walter Parlby (now Honourable Mrs. Walter Parlby) as President. She was succeeded in 1919 by Mrs. Marion Sears. The President of the Women's section is also a member of the Board of Directors of the United Farmers of Alberta. The organized farmers thus carry out very thoroughly the democratic principles for which they stand. During the war the United Farm Women were active in support of the Red Cross, Belgian Relief, Patriotic Fund, and other relief work. They bore a heavy strain in assisting in greater production for the armies and people of the Allies. Farm help in the house and in the field was almost unprocurable; notwithstanding the scarcity of labour the rate of production of all foodstuffs was enormously increased. Their work was undoubtedly a great factor in Alberta's contribution to win the war.

The Women's Institutes of Alberta were organized under the auspices of the Department of Agriculture of the Province. The work carried on by these organizations was first carried on in conjunction with the Farmers' Institutes. But the growing influence of women in matters of state policy and improvement of country life conditions led to a separate organization in 1916. This was done by an act of the legislature which provided for the formation of Women's Institutes in any district where eight or more women over sixteen years of age apply to the department to be constituted. Small provincial grants are given and the work superintended by an officer of the department. Miss Mary McIsaac was the first superintendent of the work in Alberta. In 1921 she was succeeded by Miss Jessie McMillan, who still superintends this work for the Government of Alberta.

The work of Women's Institutes is devoted almost entirely to the improvement of social conditions in rural communities. Home nursing, sanitation, sickroom cooking, child welfare, food values, house furnishing and local neighborhood needs are representative activities that engage the attention of the Institutes. The work has been carried on by the

women of the Province with great enthusiasm and with great promise for the future improvement of rural life. Different communities attack different problems. Some Institutes have established rest rooms in the towns for the country women who shop there. Others have devoted their energies to obtaining medical and nursing assistance, others to the establishment of libraries in their districts, and others to child welfare work. Through the Department of Agriculture lecturers and demonstrators are furnished to Institutes and short courses are given in subjects embraced within the scope of the act.

In recent years the work of the Women's Institutes has been enlarged to include the girls of rural communities. There are now (1921) fifty-four Women's Institute Girls' Clubs with a membership of 850. The objects of such clubs are the improvement of social and educational conditions among girls of school and adolescent age.

During the war the activities of the Women's Institutes were directed particularly to Red Cross and Patriotic work, but much was also done in the line of community improvements. Public libraries were established, the number of rest rooms in operation doubled, garden contests and flower shows held by increased number of Institutes and some Institutes organized Children's Day, when prizes were donated for general proficiency, regular attendance at school, drawing, sewing, cooking and flowers. In 1915 \$6,459.00 was contributed to various war funds, and in 1916 \$30,166.87 raised for war purposes, and 32,243 articles sent to soldiers overseas.

In 1918 the Women's Institute of Alberta was successful in completing the organization of the Society. The Province was divided into four geographical districts, the units of which were provincial electoral constituencies; each constituency elected a constituency executive board.

During 1919 and after the Spanish influenza epidemic it was thought advisable that instruction in home nursing and the care of the sick should be given to as many Institutes as were prepared to receive it. Consequently, short course schools in home nursing and first aid were given at fifty-four centres throughout the Province, with a total attendance of 3,409 women.

In 1919 the total membership was 13,150 with a total of 365 Institutes; 2,585 persons of 461 families were supplied with complete outfits of clothing; large numbers of layettes were supplied by the relief depot in those districts where the need was most urgent; \$3,600 worth of new garments were purchased from the wholesalers with money contributed, and 22,042 garments were distributed by the depot; twenty-five Institutes gave prizes to students for various types of merits; one Institute completely furnished a domestic science kitchen; another Institute donated \$100 worth of books to the local school.

There are thirty-eight Women's Institute Rest Rooms and Community Homes in Alberta, of this number approximately one-third of the Insti-

tutes own their buildings. A number of these homes have been built in memory of the boys from the district who fell in the Great war.

The Young Women's Christian Association and the Catholic Women's League have strong organizations in the principal cities. These two organizations exist mainly for the care of young women away from home. Each conducts splendid homes for business girls. While specializing on this splendid community service, they do a great deal of charity and patriotic work. The Catholic Women's League of Edmonton was very active during the war in assisting the Red Cross, French Relief Fund and Belgian Relief.

In the four principal cities of the Province there is a Children's Aid Society to assist in carrying out the objects of the Provincial laws respecting the protection of children. These Societies are mostly in the hands of women, who, in addition to keeping public sentiment alive on questions of child welfare maintain and manage children's homes for such children who need temporary care through the illness or misfortune of their parents.

The war brought into existence two associations of women. These were the Next of Kin Associations, incorporated under a Provincial act; and the War Widows' Association. They sprung up in the cities and principal towns. While husbands, brothers and sons were overseas the Next of Kin Associations rendered valuable community service in protecting dependents at home in matters of soldiers' assigned pay, separation allowances, Patriotic Fund and Red Cross relief, and did much to sustain the morale of soldiers' families. In Edmonton and Calgary, the Next of Kin Associations of these cities established Next of Kin homes for the care of soldiers' children when the mother was ill or when the mother died before the father's return and the lawful next of kin could not be found or did not look after the motherless family. In this work the Next of Kin received the coöperation of the Red Cross Society and the Canadian Patriotic Fund. After the close of the war and the demobilization of the various military units, the work of these homes steadily decreased, until it was taken over by the Alberta Branch of the Red Cross Society.

The War Widows' Association was composed of the wives of men who had died or been killed while in military service, and was particularly active during the war and the years immediately following its cessation.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX 1.

Successive Governors of the North West Territories and of the Province of Alberta.

Name	From Assump- tion of Office	To
Hon. Adams George Archibald, C. M. G.	July 15, 1870	April 1, 1872
Hon. Francis G. Johnson	April 8, 1872	Dec. 1872
Hon. Alexander Morris	Dec. 2, 1872	Oct. 6, 1876
Hon. David Laird	Oct. 7, 1876	Dec. 2, 1881
Hon. Edgar Dewdney	Dec. 3, 1881	July 3, 1888
Hon. Joseph Royal	July 4, 1888	Oct. 31, 1893
Hon. Charles Herbert Mackintosh	Nov. 1, 1893	June 6, 1898
Hon. Malcolm Colin Cameron	June 7, 1898	Sept. 26, 1898
Hon. Amedee Emmanuel Forget	Oct. 13, 1898	Sept. 1, 1905
Hon. George Hedley Vicars Bulyea	Sept. 1, 1905	Oct. 20, 1915
Hon. Robert George Brett	Oct. 20, 1915	To date.

APPENDIX 2.

Successive Speakers of the North West Assembly and Assembly of Alberta.

Hon. H. C. Wilson	Edmonton,	1888-1891.
Hon. J. H. Ross	Moose Jaw,	1891-1895.
Hon. J. F. Betts	Prince Albert,	1895-1899.
Hon. Wm. Eakin	Saltcoats,	1899-1904.
Hon. C. W. Fisher	Cochrane,	1906-1919.
Hon. C. S. Pingle	Redcliff,	1920-1921.
Hon. O. L. McPherson	Little Bow,	1922-

APPENDIX 3.

Successive Members of North West Council, 1877-87.

Dates of Session, Place.	Ex-Officio Members	Appointed Members	Elected Members	District
1st Session March 8-22, 1877 Swan River	Matthew Ryan Lt. Col. Hugh Richardson	Lt. Col. J. F. Macleod, C. M. G.		
2nd Session July 10-Aug. 2, 1878 Battleford	Matthew Ryan Lt. Col. Hugh Richardson	Lt. Col. J. F. Macleod, C. M. G. Pascal Breland		
3rd Session Aug. 28-Sept. 27, 1879 Battleford	Matthew Ryan Lt. Col. Hugh Richardson	Lt. Col. J. F. Macleod, C. M. G. Pascal Breland		
4th Session May 26-June, 1881 Battleford	Matthew Ryan Lt. Col. Hugh Richardson	Lt. Col. J. F. Macleod, C. M. G. Pascal Breland	Lawrence Clarke	Lorne
5th Session Aug. 20-Oct. 4, 1883 Regina	Lt. Col. Hugh Richardson Lt. Col. J. F. Macleod	Pascal Breland Lt. Col. A. G. Irvine Hayter Reed	Francis Oliver Capt. D. H. Macdowall J. C. C. Hamilton T. W. Jackson Wm. White J. H. Ross	Edmonton Lorne Broadview Qu'Appelle Regina Moose Jaw
6th Session July 3-Aug. 6, 1884	Lt. Col. Hugh Richardson Lt. Col. J. F. Macleod C. B. Rouleau	Pascal Breland Lt. Col. A. G. Irvine Hayter Reed	J. G. Turriff J. D. Geddes	Moose Mountain Calgary

APPENDIX 4.

Seventh Session—November 5 to December 18, 1885.

Ex-officio members and appointed: Same as preceding session.

Elected members:

Name	District
Bedford, S. A.-----	Moosomin
Cunningham, Samuel -----	St. Albert
Geddes, I. G.-----	Calgary
Henry, Richard, Viscount Boyle-----	Macleod
Hughes, O. E. -----	Lorne
Jackson, T. W.-----	Qu'Appelle
Jelly, D. F. -----	Regina
Marshallsay, Chas. -----	Broadview
Perley, W. D. -----	Qu'Appelle
Ross, J. H. -----	Moose Jaw
Secord, John -----	Regina
Turriff, E. G. -----	Moose Mountain
Wilson, H. C.-----	Edmonton

Eighth Session—October 31 to November 19, 1886.

Ex-officio and elected members: Same as former council.

Elected members:

Name	District
Bedford, S. A.-----	Moosomin
Cayley, H. S.-----	Calgary
Cunningham, Samuel -----	St. Albert
Crawford, Robert -----	Qu'Appelle
Henry, Richard -----	Macleod
Hughes, O. E. -----	Lorne
Jelly, D. F. -----	Regina
Lauder, John D. -----	Calgary
Marshallsay, Chas. -----	Broadview
Perley, W. D. -----	Qu'Appelle
Ross, J. H.-----	Moose Jaw
Secord, John -----	Regina
Turriff, I. E. -----	Moose Mountain
Wilson, H. C.-----	Edmonton

Ninth Session—October 14 to November 19, 1887.

Ex-officio and appointed members: Same as former council.

Elected members:

Name	District
Bedford, S. A. -----	Moosomin
Cayley, H. S. -----	Calgary
Crawford, Robert -----	Qu'Appelle
Cunningham, Samuel -----	St. Albert
Haultain, F. W. G.-----	Macleod
Hughes, O. E. -----	Prince Albert
Jelly, D. F.-----	Regina
Lauder, J. D. -----	Calgary
Marshallsay, Charles -----	Broadview
Ross, J. H. -----	Moose Jaw
Secord, John-----	Regina
Sutherland, William -----	Qu'Appelle
Turriff, J. G. -----	Moose Mountain
Wilson, H. C. -----	Edmonton

Successive Elections for Members of N. W. T. Legislative Assembly.

Election 1888.

Date of Writ 1888	Electoral Districts	Dates of Elec- tion 1888	Members Elected
4th June	Batoche	30th June	Hillyard Mitchell
"	Battleford	30th June	James Clinkskill
"	Calgary	27th June	(John Lineham (Hugh St. Quentin Cayley (Herbert Charles Wilson (Frank Oliver
"	Edmonton	30th June	James Hoey
"	Kinistino	30th June	Frederick William Gordon Haultain
"	Macleod	20th June	Thomas Tweed
"	Medicine Hat	20th June	James Hamilton Ross
"	Moose Jaw	27th June	James Ryerson Neff
"	Moosomin	20th June	William Sutherland
"	North Qu'Appelle	27th June	David Finlay Jelly
"	North Regina	27th June	(William Plaxton (John F. Betts
"	Prince Albert	30th June	Robert George Brett
"	Red Deer	27th June	John Gillanders Turriff
"	Souris	27th June	George Suize Davidson
"	South Qu'Appelle	27th June	John Secord
"	South Regina	27th June	Joel Reaman
"	Wallace	27th June	Alexander Gillon Thorburn
"	Whitewood	27th June	Benjamin Parkyn Richardson
"	Wolseley	27th June	

General Election of Members of Legislative Assembly for Year 1891.

Date of Writs 1891	Electoral Districts.	Date of Election 1891	Members Elected.
10th Oct.	Banff -----	10th October	Robert George Brett.
"	Battleford -----	"	James Clinkskill
"	Batoche -----	"	Charles Nolin
"	Cannington -----	"	Samuel Spencer Page
"	Calgary -----	"	(John Lineham (Hugh St. Quentin Cayley
"	Cumberland -----	"	John Felton Betts
"	Edmonton -----	"	Frank Oliver
"	Kinistino -----	"	William Frederick Meyers
"	Lethbridge -----	"	Charles Alexander Magrath
"	Moosomin -----	"	John Ryerson Neff
"	Moose Jaw -----	"	James Hamilton Ross
"	Medicine Hat -----	"	Thomas Tweed
"	Macleod -----	"	Frederick William Gordon Haultain
"	Mitchell -----	"	Hillyard Mitchell
"	North Qu'Appelle -----	"	William Sutherland
"	North Regina -----	"	David Finlay Jelly
"	Prince Albert -----	"	Thomas McKay
"	Red Deer -----	"	Francis Edward Wilkins
"	Souris -----	"	George Henry Knowling
"	South Qu'Appelle -----	"	George Suize Davidson
"	South Regina -----	"	Daniel Mowat
"	St. Albert -----	"	Antonio Prince
"	Wallace -----	"	Joel Reaman
"	Whitewood -----	"	Daniel Campbell
"	Wolseley -----	"	James Peers Dill

Date of Writ 1894	Electoral Districts	Date of Election 1894	Members Elected
21st Oct.	Banff	31st October	Robert George Brett
"	Battleford	"	James Clinkskill
"	Batoche	"	Charles Eugene Boucher
"	Cannington	"	Samuel Spencer Page
"	Calgary, West	"	Oswald Asheton Crithley
"	Calgary, East	"	Joseph Bannerman
"	Edmonton	"	Frank Oliver
"	High River	"	John Lineham
"	Kinistino	"	William Frederick Meyers
"	Lethbridge	"	Charles Alexander Magrath
"	Moosomin	"	John Ryerson Neff
"	Medicine Hat	"	Edward Fearon
"	Macleod	"	Frederick William Gordon Haultain
"	Mitchell	"	Hillyard Mitchell
"	Moose Jaw	"	James Hamilton Ross
"	Prince Albert, West	"	John Lestock Reid
"	Prince Albert, East	14th November	John Felton Betts
"	Qu'Appelle, South	31st October	George Hedley Vicars Bulyea
"	Qu'Appelle, North	"	William Sutherland
"	Red Deer	"	John A. Simpson
"	Regina, North	"	George William Brown
"	Regina, South	"	Daniel Mowat
"	Saltcoats	"	William Eakin
"	Souris	"	George Henry Knowling
"	St. Albert	"	Daniel Maloney
"	Whitewood	"	Archibald Beaton Gillis
"	Wolseley	"	James Peers Dill
"	Yorkton	"	Fredrik Robert Insinger
"	Victoria	"	Frank Fraser Tims

General Election for Members of the Legislative Assembly of 1898

Date of Writ.	Electoral District	Date of Election 1898	Members Elected
4th Nov.	Battleford	4th November	Benjamin Prince
"	Batoche	"	Charles Fisher
"	Banff	"	Robert George Brett
"	Calgary, West	"	Richard Bedford Bennett
"	Calgary, East	"	Alfred Ernest Cross
"	Cannington	"	Ewan Cameron McDiarmid
"	Edmonton	"	Matthew McCauley
"	Grenfell	"	Richard Stewart Lake
"	High River	"	Richard Alfred Wallace
"	Kinistino	"	William Frederick Meyers
"	Lethbridge	"	Leverett George Deveber
"	Moose Jaw	"	James Hamilton Ross
"	Macleod	"	Frederick William Gordon Haultain
"	Medicine Hat	"	Horace Albertie Greeley
"	Mitchell	"	Joseph Albert McIntyre
"	Moosomin	"	Alexander Smith Smith
"	Prince Albert, West	"	Thomas McKay
"	Prince Albert, East	"	Samuel McLeod
"	Qu'Appelle, North	"	Donald Hogarth McDonald
"	Qu'Appelle, South	"	George Hedley Vickers Bulyea
"	Regina, South	"	James Benjamin Hawkes
"	Regina, North	"	George William Brown
"	Red Deer	"	John A. Simpson
"	Souris	"	John Wesley Connell
"	Saltcoats	"	William Eakin
"	St. Albert	"	Frederick Villeneuve
"	Victoria	"	John William Shera
"	Whitewood	"	Archibald Beaton Gillis
"	Wetaskiwin	"	Anthony Sigwart Rosenroll
"	Wolseley	"	William Elliott

General Election for Members of the Legislative Assembly of 1902.

Date of Writ.	Electoral Districts.	Date of Election 1902	Members Elected.
21st May	Banff	21st May	Arthur Lewis Sifton
"	Batoche	"	Charles Fisher
"	Battleford	"	Benjamin Prince
"	Calgary, East	"	John Jackson Young
"	Calgary, West	"	Richard Bedford Bennett
"	Cannington	"	Ewan Cameron McDiarmid
"	Cardston	"	John William Woolf
"	Edmonton	"	Richard Secord
"	Grenfell	"	Richard Stewart Lake
"	High River	"	Richard Alfred Wallace
"	Kinistino	"	William Frederick Meyers
"	Lacombe	"	Peter Talbot
"	Lethbridge	"	Leverett George DeVeber
"	Mitchell	"	Alexander Duncan McIntyre
"	Moosomin	"	Alexander Smith Smith
"	Moose Jaw	"	George Malcolm Annable
"	Maple Creek	"	Horace Albertie Greeley
"	Macleod	"	Frederick William Gordon Haultain
"	Medicine Hat	"	William Thomas Finlay
"	Prince Albert	"	Thomas McKay
"	Qu'Appelle, South	"	George Hedley Vickers Bulyea
"	Qu'Appelle, North	"	Donald Hogarth McDonald
"	Regina, North	"	George William Brown
"	Regina, South	"	James Benjamin Hawkes
"	Souris	"	John Wesley Connell
"	Strathcona	"	Alexander Cameron Rutherford
"	St. Albert	"	Daniel Maloney
"	Saskatoon	"	William Henry Sinclair
"	Saltcoats	"	Thomas McNutt
"	Victoria	"	John William Shera
"	Whitewood	"	Archibald Beaton Gillis
"	Wetaskiwin	"	Anthony Sigwart de Rosenroll
"	Wolseley	"	William Elliott
"	Yorkton	"	Thomas Alfred Patrick

Successive Federal Elections in N. W. T. Election, 1887.

APPENDIX 5.

Constituency	Candidate	Vote
Alberta -----	D. W. Davis -----	1,037
	R. Hardisty -----	783
	J. D. Lafferty -----	235
*Assiniboia, East -----	W. D. Perley -----	1,736
	J. H. Dickie -----	1,010
Assiniboia, West -----	N. F. Davin -----	726
	J. H. Ross -----	423
Saskatchewan -----	D. H. Macdowall -----	718
	Hon. David Laird -----	552

* Next year Mr. Perley was appointed to the Senate, his seat in the Common being taken by Hon. E. Dewdney who became Minister of the Interior.

Elections of 1891.

Alberta -----	D. W. Davis -----	2,742
Assiniboia, East -----	Hon. E. Dewdney -----	2,049
	J. G. Turriff -----	1,293
Assiniboia, West -----	N. F. Davin -----	1,011
	Thomas Tweed -----	684
Saskatchewan -----	D. H. Macdowall -----	950
	H. J. Montgomery -----	667

Elections of 1896.

Alberta -----	Simon I. Clark -----	71
	Thomas B. H. Cochrane -----	2,863
	Frank Oliver -----	3,647
Assiniboia, East -----	J. M. Douglas -----	3,556
	W. W. McDonald -----	2,502
*Assiniboia, West -----	N. F. Davin -----	1,500
	John K. McInnis -----	1,495
Saskatchewan -----	William Craig -----	213
	Hon. Wilfrid Laurier -----	988
	James MacKay -----	944

* On recount before a judge the vote was 1,502 for each candidate. Mr. Davin was elected by casting vote of the returning officer.

In bye-election December 19th, 1896, due to resignation of Hon. Wilfrid Laurier, T. O. Davis, elected.

Elections, 1900—November 7th.

Constituency	Candidate	Vote
Alberta -----	R. B. Bennett -----	4,029
	Frank Oliver -----	5,203
Assiniboia, East -----	J. M. Douglas -----	4,081
	R. S. Lake -----	3,822
Assiniboia, West -----	N. F. Davin -----	1,861
	Walter Scott -----	2,093
Saskatchewan -----	T. O. Davis -----	1,635
	T. C. Spence -----	894

Election, 1904.

Alberta -----	John Herron -----	1,755
	Malcolm McKenzie -----	1,677
Assiniboia, East -----	J. G. Turriff -----	3,770
	J. R. Brigham -----	3,016
Assiniboia, West -----	G. M. Annable -----	2,865
	Walter Scott -----	3,647
Calgary -----	M. S. McCarthy -----	2,993
	Charles F. Stewart -----	2,545
Edmonton -----	Frank Oliver -----	3,535
	Richard Secord -----	1,526
Humboldt -----	A. J. Adamson -----	1,218
	Charles Craig -----	581
Mackenzie -----	E. L. Cash -----	1,933
	Mike Gabera -----	6
	T. A. Patrick -----	506
Qu'Appelle -----	R. S. Lake -----	2,830
	Levi Thomson -----	2,802
Saskatchewan -----	J. H. Lamont -----	2,183
	Thomas McKay -----	1,347
*Strathcona -----	O. Bush -----	1,878
	J. J. Gregory -----	130
	P. Talbot -----	3,863

Frank Oliver was reelected by acclamation April 25, 1905, on accepting the position of Minister of the Interior after the resignation of Hon. C. Sifton.

* In bye-election held in Strathcona, April 5th, 1906, on appointment of P. Talbot to the Senate, Wilbert McIntyre, 2,819; F. W. Crang, 1,301.

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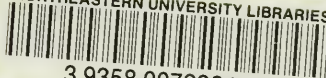


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